DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 230 024 FL 013 654

AUTHOR Richard, Pierre
TITLE English as a Second Language for French-Canadian Adults Who Travel to Florida: An ESP Syllabus Development Project.
PUB DATE Jun 82
NOTE 135p.; Master's Thesis, Concordia University, Montreal, Quebec, Canada.
PUB TYPE Dissertations/Theses - Master Theses (042) -- Reports - Research/Technical (143) -- Guides - Classroom Use - Guides (For Teachers) (052)

EDRS PRICE MF01/PC06 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS Adults; *Class Activities; *Communicative Competence (Languages); *Conversational Language Courses; *Course Descriptions; Cultural Interrelationships; *English for Special Purposes; French; Learning Activities; Second Language Instruction; *Sociocultural Patterns
IDENTIFIERS *French Canadians

ABSTRACT

A large number of middle aged and retired French-speaking Canadians spend time in Florida during the winter months. While most of them have some knowledge of English, they have a need for communicative competence in English in some business and social situations. This ESP (English for Specific Purposes) syllabus development project attempts to answer these needs by making use of and putting into practice recent thinking in syllabus design, methodology, and second language learning for a special purpose. After the introductory chapters describing the population needs and the theoretical bases, three chapters develop the syllabus itself and provide suggested learning activities. First, 23 principles are discussed. These treat aspects of the model related to language, culture, communicative activity, and general language education. The fourth chapter provides the actual course description that is developed from the 23 principles. It treats technical aspects, class and homework learning activities, and specifications on the language content. Finally, four teaching/learning activities are presented. The presentation includes all the worksheets and other materials needed for the activities. (AMH)

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ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE FOR FRENCH-CANADIAN ADULTS WHO TRAVEL TO FLORIDA: AN ESP SYLLABUS DEVELOPMENT PROJECT

Pierre Richard

A Thesis

in

The Centre for Teaching

English as a Second Language

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION
EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)

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Presented in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements
for the degree of Master of Arts at
Concordia University
Montréal, Québec, Canada

June 1982

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ABSTRACT

ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE FOR FRENCH-CANADIAN
ADULTS WHO TRAVEL TO FLORIDA:
AN ESP SYLLABUS DEVELOPMENT PROJECT

Pierre Richard

The syllabus development project described in this thesis is an attempt to answer the need for a course that would provide adult learners who have French as their mother tongue with a basic communicative competence in English that would enable them to function more efficiently as tourists or part-time residents in Florida. It is by putting into practice recent thinking and research in syllabus design, second language acquisition and methodology that the author constructs a course in English for specific purposes (ESP). The five chapters of the thesis present 1) the rationale for the project with a description of the population and their language needs, 2) a critical description of the grammatical, the situational and the semantic syllabus, 3) a set of 23 principles chosen to guide the design of the course, 4) specifications concerning the teaching/learning activities and other aspects of the course, and 5) samples of activities.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Some people have played important roles at various stages of my Masters program, of which this thesis is the concluding step, and I would like to express my most sincere gratitude to them. I am grateful to the CEGEP de Lévis-Lauzon, Quebec, for granting me support, funds, and a leave of absence to complete this degree. I am also grateful to Marianne Celce-Murcia and John Fanselow from whom I acquired the urge to learn more, during the summer of 1979 at U.C.L.A. For the fine teaching, warm contact, and constant willingness to help I would like to thank my professors at the TESL Centre: Bruce Barkman, Brian Smith, John Upshur and more particularly Patsy Lightbown and Alex Sharma who were also readers for this thesis. Finally, and especially, I wish to express my gratitude to Ronald Mackay, my thesis supervisor, for his kind and most competent help.

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CHAPTER ONE

The objective of this syllabus development project is to design a course in English as a second language for a population of French-Canadian adults who go to Florida regularly.

This project aims at answering an actual need for an "English for tourists" course in the Eastern Québec region and as such it is in fact a syllabus design project in the field of applied linguistics.

FRENCH-CANADIANS IN FLORIDA

According to a survey conducted by Radio Canada, the national radio and television network of Canada, in preparation for its "Consommateur-Plus" series, 2,000,000 Canadians, 450,000 of whom were from the Province of Québec, went to Florida in 1980. In 1982, 335,000 Québécois will have flown to Florida on six different airlines (D'Amour, 1982). In Fort Lauderdale alone, some 200 motels are owned by Québécois. In the Hollywood district for instance, during the winter months, 25,000 residents out of a total of 126,000 are from the province of Québec (Lortie, 1982, pp. 642-643). In fact, it would be more appropriate to refer to Canadian tourists in Florida as part-time residents.

In 1974 the Canadian investments in Florida were estimated at 100 million dollars. In 1978 they were estimated at 450 million, and in 1980

they reached a peak of 700 million. Florida now is the home of 45 Canadian investment and management societies. In the winter months 25% of the population living in the area between Palm Beach and Miami is Canadian (Lortie, 1982).

There are undoubtedly many reasons that account for this annual migration of Canadians to Florida. The harshness of Canadian winters, the relative proximity of the U.S. state, the low air fares, the rather high standard of living of Canadians, along with the laws that facilitate foreign investment in the U.S., are some of the important factors that play a role in this phenomenon. However, it is somewhat surprising to see that nearly half a million French-speaking Québécois have adopted Florida as their second home, since most of them do not speak English. Newsham and Acheson (1981) report figures from the 1971 census that indicate that at that date 61% of the population of the Province of Québec spoke French only. It is not unreasonable to assume that the changes brought about in the field of education since the 1976 election along with the passage in 1977 of Bill 101, which made French the only official language of Québec, have contributed in increasing this percentage of French unilingualism in Québec. However, the effect of this legislation has not yet been felt in the "tourist-age" population.

The popularity of Florida as a place of short-term or long-term residence for French-Canadians can be explained by the fact that although they live in an English-speaking environment when they are there, their importance as a group is such that it is possible to reside there and to get by without English. French-Canadians are mostly concentrated in one area of Florida. They own land and property. They can find entertainment, health and religious services as well as financial and legal resources

offered in French by fellow French-Canadians. Recently, local radio and TV stations have added French-language broadcasts. This is why older French-Canadians find in Florida a home and a feeling of security that they cannot find anywhere else in the USA. The following description found in a popular publication summarizes the point very well:

> Donc, pour les gens qui, l'hiver venu, partiraient à la recherche du soleil mais qui, d'autre part, craignent le dépaysement, la Floride constitue une destination qui saura satisfaire le plus timide. (Lortie, 1982, pp. 642-643)

Although the knowledge of English is not essential for the adult who goes to Florida, it is certainly an asset. It is not possible to enjoy all Florida has to offer if one cannot understand what one hears or reads and if one cannot communicate with many of the people in one's environment. Restricted communication is the problem that most unilinguals encounter during their stay in Florida, with all the possibilities for misunderstandings with unilingual Americans once the limits of this restricted environment are crossed.

French-speaking semi-residents appear to go through stages during their stay. The first stage could be characterized by the initial pleasure the person feels due to getting away from the Québec winter and getting into a new environment. The new setting offers possibilities of physical comfort and relaxation that are not possible at home. During this stage, it seems that the person is satisfied with the new life s/he is experiencing, concentrating on the enjoyable elements Florida has to offer. It is during this period that people are most likely to engage in activities that are mostly tourist-like. In those situations, the need for English is usually minimal.

However, once they have satisfied their physical needs and have grown somewhat accustomed to the environment, human needs seem to move about. This shift, which could be said to characterize the second stage semi-residents go through, is an important one. People feel the need to socialize. They want to make their short-term place of residence a home. In order to achieve this partial integration into the new society, people have to start making contacts with their environment. For some, this can mean talking to the neighbours or shopping outside the tourist areas; for others, it can mean joining a golf club, in fact different types of activities that often require the ability to communicate in English. It is at this point that some people really discover they cannot communicate in English.

To remedy the situation many people, while at home in Québec, register in English evening courses offered by the public school system in secondary schools, Cegeps and universities, as well as private language schools and some organizations such as the local social clubs and the YMCA.

Although different from the integrative motivation that can sometimes be felt by immigrants entering a new society, the desire to become more fluent in English, on the part of the people who have come to this kind of realization, constitutes, in our opinion, a very strong motivational factor for them. The decision to learn the language is essentially their own. It is derived from a personal realization and is further reinforced by a precise identified purpose for language learning.

When we examine what courses are currently available we soon discover that there are simply no English courses designed especially to cater to the needs of the population of learners we are concerned with. An informal survey conducted by the coordinator of the programme of English courses at

Cegep de Lévis-Lauzon (Richard, Note 1), revealed that most courses offered to adults merely duplicated what was done in schools with the regular students. Some schools offered courses using methods based on Structuro-Global-Audio-Visual principles such as Coast to Coast (1977) or American English by the Audio-Visual Method (1962). Others offered courses labelled "conversational English" which were rather vague in content and which relied on the teachers' inspiration rather than clearly defined objectives.

Richard's survey covered all the institutions, public and private, in the Québec City region. It is interesting to notice that in 1979 more than 90% of the courses offered followed a structural/grammatical sequencing of the language and did not aim explicitly at communicative competence starting from Level One. The types of activities that require the students to understand and use the L2 as it is used in the L2 environment were usually postponed until the student reached the intermediate or advanced level. This is unfortunate as experience and common sense show that adults who enroll in English courses expect to be able to use English as soon as possible. Corder (1973) recognizes this need for early communicative use of the language: "The learner rightly expects to be able to use what he has learned for that purpose [communication] from the very beginning, however limited its range." (p. 312).

Although some programmes or courses may have changed, it is still impossible, in the Québec City area, to take a course designed especially for French-Canadians who need English for their annual sojourn in Florida or any broader type of tourist English course for that matter. This situation seems to prevail across the province of Québec if we judge by the figures given by Newsham and Acheson (1981) concerning ESL materials used in programs for adult students. Their study shows that aside from

locally-made materials (that were not described) the materials used for adult courses are the same as the materials we find in public schools for the regular day-time courses.

The explanation for this lack of specificity in the types of English courses offered to adults could perhaps be found in the fact that most courses are offered by institutions which very rarely have full-time personnel working on their ESL program. This reduces the possibilities for serious and specific attention to be paid to the needs of the learners and consequently, for specific-purpose type of course design. Moreover, as mentioned by Newsham and Acheson (1981) there is a real need for better-trained professionals in the field of ESL. An awareness of the recent developments in applied linguistics can only help in providing L2 learners with the type of course which will give them the opportunity to use the language for immediate communicative purposes.

The syllabus development project described in this thesis is an attempt to answer the need for a course that would provide adult learners who have French as their mother tongue with a basic communicative competence in English that would enable them to function more efficiently as tourists or part-time residents in an English-speaking environment.

The project should contribute to current developments in the field of applied linguistics by making use of and putting into practice recent thinking and research in syllabus design, methodology, and second language acquisition.

In order to put the project in its specific-purpose perspective, a description of the population of learners and of their language needs will first be given in this chapter. Chapter two will review the current literature on syllabus design and will touch briefly upon certain theories

of L2 acquisition research that have implications for the design of the course. Chapter three will describe the specific guidelines adopted for the course. Chapter four will consist of a detailed description of the course and the teaching techniques and types of learning activities to be used. Chapter five will consist of samples of specific activities designed for the course.

THE POPULATION

The population of learners considered here is at the heart of the project. It is the constituent to which each decision concerning the course should be linked. Therefore, it is of primary importance to have a clear picture of the people who compose it.

The present description of the population and following needs assessment are based on 1) six years of experience teaching adults who belong to the population we are describing, 2) lengthy discussions with family members, relatives and friends who have been kind enough to help by answering questions concerning their annual sojourn in Florida, and 3) personal observations made during four personal visits to Florida. Such a description of a population's language needs could be developed into a major project, but we have chosen to focus on other aspects of syllabus design, namely the types of syllabuses that are available today and methodological considerations particular to our project, for the purpose of this thesis.

The population is mostly made up of middle-aged or retired French-Canadian men and women. They form the great majority of French-Canadians who go to Florida every year. Most younger French-Canadian tourists leave home in the summer only. Those who do travel in winter will tend to travel to different places from year to year. It is interesting to notice that the concentration of older French-Canadians found in Florida in the winter

months finds its counterpart in the thousands of younger French-Canadians who travel to the beaches of Maine and New Hampshire every summer. This social phenomenon seems to be characteristic of French-Canadians.

As we mentioned previously, this population enjoys the comfort and security of going to the same place, of meeting the same people - usually other French-Canadians - and of eating in the same restaurants year after year. Many of them own houses, mobile homes or condominiums in Florida.

Therefore, this population does not correspond to the idea we usually have of tourists. In fact, French-Canadians in Florida form a micro-society which resembles, on a much smaller scale, that of well-established ethnic groups in large North American cities, i.e. they do not form a "transient" population.

For many people, Florida is synonymous with the winter home where one goes to when autumn or Christmas comes and where one stays until Easter. The sojourn is often punctuated by two-week visits from children who sometimes come with the grandchildren. Because of the rather long period of time they spend in Florida, French-Canadians exhibit somewhat more of a family-type of tourism than, say, tourists spending a week or two in the Caribbean.

Of all the factors mentioned previously - permanent residence, part-time residence, age, family-type of nesting patterns and French unilingualism - it is the latter which probably contributes the most in making the population a homogeneous one. If French-Canadians have adopted Florida and have made it a home by developing their own network of establishments, we believe it is mostly due to the fact that they all share the same mother tongue and the same culture.

Also equally important for the course are the characteristics that surface when we look at the population as a group of potential L2 learners.

These French-Canadians share common experiences. One important area of experience is the way the population was taught when they attended school. The comments adults make about school in their days indicate that learning was done by the study of rules first, followed by analysis or guided use in exercises. In the area of L2 learning more particularly, the grammar-translation approach prevailed along with the memorization of bilingual vocabulary lists. This type of learning experience cannot be disregarded by the syllabus designer. Adults approach learning with certain expectations based on their past experiences. It is our belief that careful consideration of factors like this one and others such as the desire for immediate results and the adult learner's own opinion on how teaching and learning should take place can prove to be highly important in the possible success or failure of a particular approach. In fact, in actual teaching situations, it is often nearly impossible to ignore the adult's past experiences as a learner since adults often arrive at their first class with an almost non-existent ability to understand oral English, for instance, but with a reading knowledge of English vocabulary which is equivalent to that of a low-intermediate student. Such discrepancies in skills often can be traced back to the years when these adults were students in elementary and secondary school.

Our population can also be said to be highly homogeneous in the kind and amount of exposure to English they have had outside the classroom. French-Canadian adults have been exposed to some English all their lives. English music, films, labels, and television are part of everybody's experience. However, only a few individuals have made the step from a "passive" exposure to English to an "active" one.

Generally speaking we could say that business people and professionals form the majority of French-Canadians who have some communicative competence in English. This is because they have had to use English on the job. As for the others, and this includes an extremely high proportion of women who spent their lives working at home, we can say that communicative competence in English is highly limited. Consequently, when these people are in Florida, it is usually a person with more experience in using the L2 who takes care of the communication in English. Only when they find themselves alone are the individuals forced to use English.

The subsequent chapters of the thesis will provide us with the opportunity to examine in what ways these characteristics can be integrated and put to active use in the course.

THE LANGUAGE NEEDS

According to researchers who have been involved in English for specific purposes course design (Jupp and Hodlin (1975), Wilkins (1976), Mackay (1978), Munby (1978)), a detailed and accurate inventory of a clientele's language needs must precede the actual design of a course. This, if done thoroughly, can become a very elaborate task, as can be seen by looking at models of needs analysis, like that of Munby for example. It is not our intention here to do such an extensive survey. We will, however, try to see how much English our population needs, what uses they have to make of the language, and what differences in needs may exist within the population. The variables identified in the needs assessment are based on informed observation and are presented using a scale of order of magnitude rather than as quantitative data obtained through a statistical approach to needs analysis.

In fact, Widdowson (1981) questions the now generally accepted point of view according to which it is both possible and necessary to analyze

learners' needs. Widdowson states that this approach which stresses the "product" is in no way superior to the traditional lists of "items to be taught" and does not account for the "processes" by which learning is accomplished. Moreover, nothing is said concerning the learner's own activity in the learning.

> Concevoir l'enseignement de l'anglais fonctionnel [ESP] comme la définition d'un contenu de cours grâce à la caractérisation minutieuse d'objectifs langagiers terminaux est une erreur dont il convient de sortir. Une telle caractérisation réduit le comportement langagier à un inventaire analytique de composants et ne rend pas compte du processus de communication en tant que tel... J'estime qu'il est préférable de considérer l'anglais fonctionnel non comme façon d'envisager la sélection des contenus langagiers en fonction des objectifs terminaux mais comme une façon d'envisager la présentation des contenus langagiers à partir d'une détermination préalable des problèmes dont la solution passera par la négociation du sens dans le processus discursif. En résolvant ces problèmes, l'apprenant sera en mesure d'appliquer à des données langagières nouvelles la compétence de communication qu'il a acquise avec sa langue maternelle et il se trouvera impliqué dans l'apprentissage comme accompagnement obligé de la production du discours. (p. 19-20)

In chapter three of the thesis we shall look at this particular perspective of language learning put forward by Widdowson and the implications it will have on the design of the course.

Table 1 shows the assumed language needs of the population. This is not an exhaustive list. Here the population is divided into two categories: long-term visitors (residents) and short-term visitors. The means of transportation are also differentiated as we believe language needs are influenced by the type of tourist one is and how one travels to Florida. The settings that call for the use of English are grouped into a "getting there" and an "in Florida" category. "0" indicates that no English is needed to carry out the task, "1" that very little English is needed,

Table 1. Informal Needs Identification

Settings / Population	car	plane	bus	short-term visitors	long-term visitors
GETTING THERE					
buying plane tickets	-	0	-		
at the airport in Mtl.	-	0	-		
at the airport in Fla.	-	0-1-2	-		
customs	0-1	0-1-2	0-1-2		
buying gas	1	-	-		
car repairs	1-2-3	-	-		
accident	2-3	-	0		
motels	1-2	-	0-1		
restaurants	0-1-2	-	0-1		
tourist attractions	1-2	-	0-1		
getting information	2-3	0	0-1-2		
reading road signs	2-3	0	0-1		
IN FLORIDA					
getting to place of resid.	0-1-2		0		
shopping for food				1-2	1-2-3
shopping for other goods				1-2	1-2-3
shop. for hardware/lumber				-/2-3	2-3
dealing with trade people				-/2-3	2-3
hairdresser's				1-2	1-2
doctor/hospital				2-3	2-3
getting information				1-2-3	1-2-3
giving information				1-2-3	1-2-3
tourist attractions				0-1	0-1
socializing				0-1	0-1-2
soc. with Eng. sp. people				2-3	2-3
car rentals				1-2	1-2
contacting airline Fla.				0→3	0→3
contacts with Eng. sp. neighbours				-/2-3	2-3
restaurants				0-1-2	0-1-2
clubs/discos				0-1-2	0-1-2
gambling (horses-dogs..)				1-2	1-2
golf				0-1	0-1
beach				0	0
church				0	0
television				0→3	0→3
radio				0→3	0→3
newspapers				0→3	0→3

a) "0" indicates that no English is needed to carry out the task, "1" that very little English is needed, "2" that some competence is needed, "3" that a fair command of the language is essential for the situation in this setting, "-" indicates that such settings are less likely to be encountered by this part of the population.

b) In order to be more precise the ratings would have to be given for situations and settings that would be more specific - that could include speech acts.

c) Although very similar on the surface, the ratings for short-term and long-term visitors do not represent the reality. Short-term visitors have fewer opportunities to find themselves in those settings.

"2" that some competence is needed, and finally "3" that a fair command of the language is essential for the situation in this setting. Since each situation is particular and can be influenced by a multitude of factors, the ratings given here can only be suggestive.

A look at Table 1 reveals that more English is required more often by some people. But before we go any further, it is important to remember that all the situations that do require the use of English - either understanding, speaking, writing or reading it - demand that only one person be able to use it, if more than one person is involved. As we said earlier, more often than not, when people go to Florida and do things in couples or in small groups (as is usually the case), the load of the communication is often borne by the person in the group who speaks English the best, therefore reducing considerably the need for English for the other people in the group.

Transportation

Understandably, it is people who go to Florida by car who need to use English the most. Not only do they have to be able to read road signs and buy gas and oil, but they also have to find food and accomodation in motels along the way. While driving to Florida, French-Canadians cannot expect the same level of comprehension and linguistic tolerance and the same helpfulness from native speakers along the way as they can from Floridians since they only go through the other states, stopping only here and there.

On the other hand, virtually no knowledge of English is required from people who travel by plane or by bus since all the important information is given to them in French.

Types of tourists

The type of tourist that needs to use English most often is the person who owns or rents a house, a mobile home, a condominium or a motel in Florida. These people spend between two and five months in Florida every year and usually have the use of a car. This part of the population is the one that participates the most in Floridian society. Owning property requires that a person take care of it. Consequently, property owners have to deal with native speakers of English from whom they cannot expect a knowledge of French. For instance, somebody who owns a mobile home will have to call servicemen to empty septic tanks and to fill up gas tanks. These part-time residents also tend to shop for food, hardware and other goods where Floridians themselves go, instead of shopping on the tourist avenues.

Next in the scale comes the person, couple or family that goes to Florida for a few weeks. Their use of English will depend on what they do while on holidays. If they rent a car, it is easy to see that situations in which they will have to communicate in the L2 will sharply increase. Last come the people who are part of group tours. It is possible for the latter to spend their holidays without really being forced to use English.

To summarize, we could say that the longer the stay, and the more "established" the living situation in Florida, the more English one is likely to need.

Settings

The settings that require a fair command of English are often found in events that are unexpected, or situations that are not typically tourist-like. Being involved in a car accident, being ill, shopping for lumber, for instance, are situations that the native population finds itself in

and for which French-Canadians are often not prepared. On the other hand, activities such as eating in restaurants, going to Disney World, or shopping for souvenirs, all take place in settings where the person catering to the tourist has either some knowledge of French or the experience of dealing with non-native speakers of English.

Although only a few situations absolutely require a fair competence in English on the part of French-Canadians when they are in Florida, most French-Canadians whose knowledge of English is limited express the wish that they could understand and speak English more. Having to rely on somebody else to get information and do the conversation is something that most people deplore. Not speaking the language implies a loss of freedom and independence to which adults are not accustomed. Comments like: "J'aurais tellement voulu lui parler à mon voisin. On se souriait et c'était tout", are part of most people's stories when they come back. However, we also hear: "J'parle pas l'anglais mais j'réussissais à me faire comprendre", confirming the well-known fact that some communication can take place even with a very limited command of the language. Evidence of this nature might seem rather obvious, but it is important enough to be brought to the learner's attention at the beginning of a course. Seen in this perspective, language learning becomes a build-up of skills on an already-existing base rather than an entirely new area of knowledge to be developed, and this would be true even for the real beginner. As we shall see in chapter three, we consider this "already-existing base", i.e., the learner's communicative competence in his/her mother tongue, as a very important factor in the design of our ESP course. It is our opinion that teaching communication strategies at the beginning level will be very useful. They sould serve to help the beginner in maintaining communication in spite of

a lack in linguistic abilities.

Another conclusion that can be derived from the study of Table 1 is that some of the settings call for a general knowledge of English - socializing, for instance - and others for more specific types of linguistic abilities that are related to specific settings, such as shopping.

It is in Chapters three and four that we shall take these elements into further consideration.

CHAPTER TWO

THE BASES OF LANGUAGE TEACHING

One of the striking features of the history of language instruction throughout the centuries, and more particularly in the twentieth century, is undoubtedly the great diversity of methodologies that have attracted the attention and support of educators. Methods and approaches have succeeded one another, each shift usually accompanied by a denial of the validity of the methods and approaches that preceded it.

The twentieth century, for instance, has seen the grammar translation approach more or less disappear in favor of the direct method which, in turn, was exchanged for the audio-lingual approach. The latter is still used today but is losing much support due to the rise of so-called "cognitive" approaches that have surfaced in the last fifteen years.

It is interesting to note that aside from the grammar-translation approach which finds its roots in the teaching of Greek and Latin, the approaches that have so far dominated the twentieth century are by-products of psychological theories. The resemblance between audio-lingualism and behaviorist theory, for example, is not coincidental. Audio-lingualism is an approach to language teaching that finds its principles in behaviorist psychological theory. The decreasing popularity of behaviorism in favor of cognitive psychology, observed in the field

of psychology, also finds its equivalent in the shift from "method" to "learner" that characterizes language teaching and language learning today. Approaches such as Lozanov's Suggestology, Gattegno's Silent Way, and Curran's Counseling-Learning are examples of methodologies which were designed following certain trends found in different schools of thought in psychology.

The concern of methodologies with psychological factors related to language learning does not imply that linguistics or education are less important components of language teaching approaches, but rather that any method of language teaching is in fact based, or should be based, on what is known about the nature of the language, what is known about the nature of the learner and on the aims of instruction: in other words, on linguistic, psychological and educational theory, the three being what Prator (1979) refers to as "the cornerstones of Method" (p. 5).

This, to me, is in perfect accordance with Howatt's (1974) statement to the effect that: "writing a language teaching course is a pedagogic problem" (p. 1). It is not purely a linguistic problem or a psychological one. Approaching the writing of a language course as a pedagogic problem implies that, in order to be complete, a language course should take into account linguistic principles, psychological principles and other information known about the learners and their needs. Moreover, since writing a course involves making choices, the personal experience of the writer as an educator and a learner can be put to profit since the decisions cannot all be based on verified theory. So far, there is no substantial empirical support for the adoption of one particular theory of second language teaching or learning.

Our aim in reviewing the literature on syllabus design is to list the most frequently used types of syllabuses as well as the more recent approaches to syllabus design in order to find which one, or which elements of the various approaches, are the most suitable for the course and population considered here. Language acquisition literature provides us with elements that characterize facets of adult second language learning, and therefore additional information which can be used to inform the process of syllabus design.

THE SYLLABUS

The Living Webster Encyclopedic Dictionary of the English Language (1971) defines "syllabus" as: "a brief summary or outlined statement of the principal points of a discourse, legal brief, or course of lectures" (p. 993). Corder's (1973) definition makes the content of a syllabus more explicit. The definition follows his analogy between syllabus design and industrial design:

> A finished syllabus is the overall plan for the learning process. It, too, must specify what components, or learning items, must be available, or learned by a certain time; what is the most efficient sequence in which they are learned; what items can be learned "simultaneously"; what items are available from stock, i.e. already known; and the whole process is determined by considerations of how long it takes to produce or learn, a component, or item. The process is under continual scrutiny by means of stock checks, or tests and examinations (p. 296).

Therefore, a syllabus must not only specify what will be taught and learned, but also the order in which the items are to be presented. This ordering of items is what Mackey (1965) refers to as "gradation" in the syllabus:

> Regardless of the principles on which they may be based, all methods include 1) some sort of grouping of their material, and 2) an arrangement of it into

> some sort of sequence. It is by comparing the grouping and sequences of material that we can see how one gradation differs from another (p. 207).

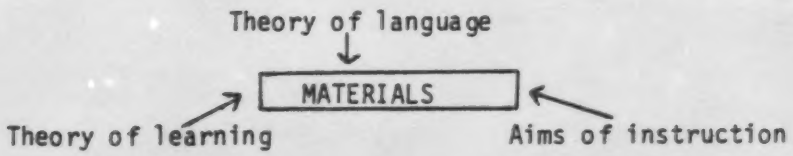
Grouping refers to "what goes with what" in a language. For example, to approach the teaching and learning of lexical items of a language, syllabus designers may want to use principles of association such as contrast "night-day" or derivation "long-length". On the other hand, the sequence of items found in a syllabus refers to the necessity for decisions as to what item comes before what other item. The lexical sequence of a syllabus could determine the introduction of concrete nouns before abstract nouns, for instance.

As we shall see in the following section of the chapter, different approaches to syllabus design offer different types of grouping and sequence, which are often accompanied by different types of presentations of items to the learners, i.e. the means by which something is communicated to somebody.

If we consider the materials of a language teaching course as the end product of a particular process of syllabus design (e.g. Lewy, 1977, p. 6), then the materials are themselves an amalgam of 1) theory of language, 2) theory of learning, and 3) aims of instruction. Thus, we can attempt to synthesize the process of syllabus design by showing (below) the materials as the result of a blend of theory of learning, theory of language, and aims of instruction, a model adapted from Howatt (1974) and Prator (1979):

Figure 1

Materials as the product of the three bases of language teaching



Aims of instruction. This refers to the goals which have been adopted for the learner. In the present case, the description of the population given in Chapter One constitutes one of the bases on which the course goals are founded. We have taken into consideration who the learners are, why they are learning the language, as well as other important factors such as their ages, their motivation, their previous learning experience and the particular settings they may find themselves in. These considerations have direct implications on the design of the course.

Theory of learning. Any teaching technique consciously or unconsciously reflects, to some extent, the view of learning adopted by the creator of that technique. In our opinion, the personal opinion learners form about a course, whether consciously or unconsciously, may be based on this relationship which in turn is, in fact, derived from a theory of learning. Although extremely difficult to evaluate due to its complex nature, this relationship is a major determinant in the possible success or failure of the teaching and learning process. It is through what goes on in the classroom that the learner can see and feel how the course was designed and how she/he is considered by the designer and teacher.

Research in the field of applied linguistics still has not determined enough unambiguous signposts for the design of syllabuses. Howatt (1974), in the absence of adequate theory, judiciously proposes the use of formal study of psychology and the teacher's personal experience and common sense as bases for decision making in the area of syllabus design. According to Howatt:

> taken together, the results of study and experience constitute a body of method which can be put into effect by developing teaching techniques to suit the special circumstances of a particular teaching situation (p. 3).

However, in practice, we can often observe the use of approaches which are more concerned with showing blind faithfulness to inadequate theory. In our opinion, the lack of success of certain methods of language teaching could be traced back to their inherent inflexibility. Methods often forbid the use of the mother tongue in class, or grammatical explanations on the part of the teacher, or will not allow note-writing on the part of students, for instance. We also find methods originally designed for certain types of situations used for purposes other than those for which they were originally conceived; they could be methods designed for young learners used for adults, or foreign language teaching materials used unchanged for a second language context. Absolute attitudes, or misuses, do not reflect the understanding of opinions like Howatt's. It is our belief that in language teaching and learning no principle is absolute.

Whereas the aims of instruction can be accurately described and their adequacy verified, and whereas a certain description of language can be chosen on fairly solid grounds and be adhered to by the designer and teacher, the adequacy of teaching techniques and foreseen learning strategies on the other hand, can only be guessed at. No set of comprehensive and definitive answers has yet been found concerning the way adults approach the learning of a language. Therefore, teaching techniques can only reflect hypotheses about language learning and consequently must remain flexible and open to change on the basis of observed results. What is probably true about language learning is that people do not all approach it in the same way. It is not unreasonable to assume that there may exist differences in the way people learn a second language. The preferences learners exhibit for particular types of teaching or learning

activities support this assumption. Just as some individuals prefer to learn a particular subject through inductive procedures, others appear to prefer learning by deductive procedures. Hence, we should be open to the possibility that some learners may prefer to be given language rules directly and then try to use language conforming to these rules, while others may prefer to deduce the rule from examples of language in use.

Theory of language. The content of a course is highly dependent upon the availability of descriptions of language. Any course will tend to reflect the grammatical units and analysis employed in that particular description upon which it drew. As we shall discuss in the next section of the chapter, this is especially true for structural syllabuses. J.L.M. Trim (1975) and D. Coste (1976) acknowledge this tendency of using theoretical frameworks almost unchanged for practical uses by warning their readers about the real nature of Threshold Level English (1975) and Un Niveau Seuil (1975):

> ... the threshold level.... is NOT a recommended (still less a prescribed, or quasi-officially endorsed) minimal vocabulary and set of structures for a language, with some useful hints on how to use them in situations .... the thresnold level is a kind of standard reference level (J.L.M. Trim, 1975, pp. x-xi).

> A la fois pléthorique et lacunaire Un Niveau Seuil ne saurait devenir une nouvelle bible prescrivant des contenus à enseigner partout et par tous. Un Niveau Seuil a été conçu et doit être utilisé comme un instrument de référence... il doit être interprété de manière souple et adapté par les utilisateurs (D. Coste, 1976, p. 4).

There are various descriptions of language, each having its own perspective on how it views the system. However, for our purpose, it is important to mention that in the term "language", as used in this dissertation, are included aspects of "usage", i.e. "... one aspect of performance, that aspect which makes evident the extent to which the language

used demonstrates his knowledge of linguistic rules", and aspects of language "use", i.e. "... another aspect of performance: that which makes evident the extent to which the language used demonstrates his ability to use his knowledge of linguistic rules for effective communication" (Widdowson, 1978, p. 3).

A syllabus designed to provide learners with a knowledge of language that they can put to communicative use must include a description of language created in a perspective of communication. Moreover, in order to be coherent the chosen communicative description of the language will have to be presented to the learners in a way that systematically and easily enables them to learn and use the language in a communicative way.

Even though all types of foreign language teaching syllabuses may have been designed with similar objectives in mind, whether this was expressed implicitly or explicitly by their creators, it is important to examine each of them individually to see how this objective is carried out. This is the task we shall now turn to.

SECOND/FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING SYLLABUSES

THE STRUCTURAL/GRAMMATICAL SYLLABUS

In a structural syllabus the items are categorized linguistically. It is probably because linguistics has so far proposed the most detailed description of language that most syllabuses are organized this way. In a structural syllabus language items are usually introduced one at a time. The object behind the presentation of the items is to learn the formation rules that guide them. Whereas in the days of the audio-lingual approach the actual context in which the items were presented did not seem to be of primary importance, the emphasis being on the overlearning of the item

in a minimal linguistic context, more recent structural syllabuses show the recognition of the importance of contextualizing the linguistic structure in order to give the learner the variety of contexts in which the structure is usually found.

Structural syllabuses offer numerous important advantages to language teaching. The field of education displays many requirements such as the division of subject matter into different grades or levels which must be followed consecutively by the students, and the need for evaluation of the students' knowledge by means of objective tests and examinations. If we add to these requirements the restrictions imposed on the teaching and learning of foreign languages by time constraints and class sizes inherent to the world of education, it is not difficult to find explanations for the popularity that structural syllabuses have met with in schools. Structural syllabuses offer a precise and clear-cut gradual sequencing of a language. By using a structural syllabus it appears to be easy to determine exactly what should be known by the students at a certain time and what there is left to be learned. The types of teaching techniques and exercises usually used in these courses are easily adaptable to the construction of tests that are coherent with the teaching done in class. Such techniques as repetition, substitution and transformation drills facilitate class work as well as individual work and are often accomplished with the use of recorded tapes. Recordings simplify the work of the teacher and enable students to hear native accents, something which is not always possible in foreign language teaching contexts. Finally, forbidding use of the mother tongue and of translation also reduces the problems encountered in foreign language teaching situations where students speak different languages.

In a structural syllabus the new items are normally introduced in a dialogue or situation. This constitutes the part of the lesson where students are exposed to language in use, or to what is often refered to as "real language". However, discourse analysis studies have shown that what is often offered as examples of real language, i.e. the dialogues, does not correspond much to the way people actually speak. The students are then asked to repeat and duplicate exactly what they have heard. The degree of accuracy in the phonological aspect of the repetition varies from one method to another. Some urge teachers to accept only a near perfect duplication of the utterance, whereas other methods are sometimes rather vague in their approach to the phonological aspect of the language.

Depending on the specific techniques used, the dialogue can be further exploited by exercises of memorization, explanation, transformation and transfer. This is usually followed by tables which present the formation rules of the structures in schematic form. The rules are then practised by the teacher and students in guided drills and exercises. Few texts encourage grammatical explanation as such on the part of teachers. The unit is then completed by the introduction of new lexical items in reading texts or stories and usually concludes with exercises that can be done at home by the students.

The same procedure is followed in the next unit which, like all units, is usually identified by a unit number and the specification of the most important structure of the unit. For instance, Unit 2 could bear titles such as "Simple Present Tense" or "Joni goes to school", indicating that the focal point of the unit is the simple present tense.

The structural syllabus has received numerous criticisms and attacks in the last decade, most of them originating in the disenchantment with the audio-lingual approach. It must be pointed out that audio-lingualism and a structural syllabus are two different things, even if they are often confused. A structural syllabus in use can, in fact, be very different from the application it received in the audio-lingual approach.

Although it is not our intention or part of our task -- nor do we believe it is currently feasible -- to prove or disprove the validity of different approaches of syllabus design, it is not possible to ignore the main criticisms made towards the structural syllabus in the last decade, since they are directly related to new developments in the field of applied linguistics. Indeed, new concerns in the field, such as discourse analysis, second language acquisition, error analysis, and syllabus design, have brought to the surface important elements that justify and support informed criticisms of the syllabus.

Corder's (1973) first specification concerning the organization of syllabuses, related to the linear and cyclical sequencing of lessons, is relevant for all types of syllabuses but finds a good target in the structural syllabus. According to Corder:

> On the time table in the classroom, language teaching appears as a linear sequence of lessons, but this does not mean that language learning is a matter of learning a sequence of more or less discrete items in a simple linear structure... (p. 296).

The linear sequencing of items in a structural syllabus has obvious advantages, as we have seen earlier, but this sequencing is at the base of some of the most severe criticisms against the syllabus. If we agree that language is made up of interrelated items that are both dependent

upon and independent of one another, and that language learning is not just a cumulative process, a simple linear sequence for a syllabus cannot be appropriate. This does not mean that points should not be introduced one after the other, but rather that although there is a grading of items to be done in a syllabus it does not automatically imply that each point is "learnt" at the place in the course where it is introduced. Corder instead proposes a cyclical syllabus in which items are reintroduced, each time related and integrated with other material already presented and learned. Although expressed in a different way, this point of view is also shared by Howatt (1974):

> The implication of these ideas for language learning is that we cannot reasonably expect full control of a new bit of language at a first encounter... we learn new bits of language gradually by experiencing them intermittently in different contexts... The concept behind all this is that of a "cyclical", or "spiral" experience of new language; i.e. we continually experience a new word or phrase and endeavour to assimilate it by trying it out on people and listening to the way other people use it (p. 20).

Implied in Howatt's statement is a hypothesis concerning language learning, that of integrating language gradually by trying it out and processing the feedback. This way of relating syllabus design and language learning is often implicit and sometimes explicit in the syllabus design and language development literature of recent years. Whereas in the past, it appeared that syllabus designers were content with the accurate and scientific description of language they had - often forgetting that language learning might not follow the same processes as those established by a linguist's descriptive grammar - syllabus designers today approach their task in a different way. By taking into consideration the language, the learners and the particular need for the language

on their part, syllabus designers propose to be closer to the concept of language and language learning as such.

The congruence that now seems to prevail between concepts of language teaching, as observed in the new syllabuses that have lately been proposed, and concepts of language learning, as expressed by contemporary researchers, can be illustrated by drawing a parallel between Howatt's process of language learning described above and Krashen's (1976, 1978, 1980) Monitor Theory, even though Howatt's view preceded the first mention of the monitor model in the literature.

Although Howatt does not distinguish between language that is "learned" through actual study and language that is "acquired" through "natural language use, that is, by rules internalized in ways similar to the way children acquire language: subconsciously..." (Krashen, 1978, p. 175), it is not unreasonable to think that what Howatt refers to as "assimilation" - trying out language and listening to language use - is a process that, in fact, resembles very much Krashen's description of the Monitor Theory. Both concepts imply the presence of language input that can come from formal or informal environments and a process of language internalization that is derived from conscious study or unconscious assimilation of the language. Both views bring into focus the active role the individual plays in his/her development of linguistic and communicative competence.

Howatt's statement also implies a view of errors that differs greatly from that of the traditional structural approach. Audiolingualism, for instance, displayed an intolerance of errors such that the presentation of items in a lesson and drilling on the part of teachers

were accomplished in such a way as to avoid the production of incorrect forms by the students. Errors were seen as dangerous because learners could learn them. The result of this careful manipulation of the language the learners were exposed to was that learners were presented with a minimum of language contextualizing the structures and were often made to use the language exclusively for purposes of linguistic manipulation.

Divergent views concerning the importance of errors have lately attracted the interest of researchers who have come up with the idea that far from being signs of failure in the language teaching and learning process, errors constitute observable actualizations of language that show a person's level of competence in a L2, i.e. a person's own internal grammar. Furthermore, incorrect forms provide data from which hypotheses about language learning can be derived (e.g. Corder, 1967; Richards, 1974). "Interlanguage" is the term that refers to the language of a learner at a point in the learning process (Selinker, 1967). It is by examining the interlanguage of L2 learners that similarities in the types of errors can be found; these similarities, in turn, can justify generalizations about L2 learning. The concept of a natural or built-in syllabus has emerged following this new perspective on errors. In Corder (1978) the principle is explained:

> The concept of interlanguage presupposes that interesting and important generalizations can be made about the process of second language learning, specifically that all language learners do show similarities in their acquisition of a second language and consequently in their interlanguage grammars at various points along the continuum of change or development. This is the hypothesis of the built-in syllabus... (pp. 76-77).

The implications of the preceding considerations for syllabus design and language teaching are not negligible. Syllabus grading could follow the route traced by possible universalities of interlanguage and could even be further specified by elements supplied by contrastive analyses of languages. However, more important for our task are the actual pedagogical implications of these findings. If incorrect forms are considered as elements that can help language development by making appropriate use of error correction techniques, the traditional view of errors and the manipulation of language it implied have to be abandoned. Learners could be encouraged to take risks and teachers could be prepared to accept errors as signs of language development. On the other hand, if such a perspective is adopted, it must be acknowledged that the task of evaluating language learning by means of traditional tests and examinations becomes a much more complicated one.

These new perspectives on language learning have initiated changes in important aspects of language teaching. The focus that was traditionally on language teaching and on a "scientific" description of language has shifted to the language learner. Language teaching is therefore made to accommodate language learning and considerations about language now also come from the learner's own performance. Accordingly, the teacher's and learner's roles take on new dimensions. The former provider and manipulator becomes a facilitator and the traditional recipient of language teaching becomes the first agent in his/her own language development process.

To sum up, it must be said that the criticisms directed towards the structural syllabus usually refer to strong applications of the structural "approach" that are not really found as such today. The structural syllabus in use today - as is reflected in popular new texts such as American Kernel Lessons (Longman, 1978), shows the evolution that the syllabus followed. Structural materials have been enriched with the introduction of meaningful drills, and with much enlarged contextualization of items. The recognition of the importance of teaching the four skills from the beginning is obvious as is the need for exposure to authentic materials and for communicative-type activities to practice the "use" of language. These changes and improvements counterbalance other attacks against the syllabus, such as its ignorance of the communicative aspect of language.

Nevertheless, the type of sequencing found in the structural syllabus, identified by Wilkins (1976) as a synthetic approach to syllabus design in that: "the content of teaching is in the first place an ordering of the forms of the linguistic system..." (p. 3), still has to contend with doubts as to the nature of the grounds on which one item can be said to be simpler than another, therefore justifying its rank in the syllabus, and with its appropriateness for types of courses other than general language courses.

We shall now turn to the situational syllabus which logically seems to answer some of the criticisms made against the structural approach to syllabus design.

THE SITUATIONAL SYLLABUS

The concept which underlies the situational syllabus is well summarized by Wilkins (1976):

> The argument for the situational syllabus is fairly straight-forward. Although languages are usually described as general systems, language is always used in a social context and cannot be fully understood without reference to that context. Our choice of linguistic forms may be

> restricted according to certain features of the social situation and, in any case, we need the language so that we can use it in the situations that we encounter. Therefore, rather than orientate learning to the subject and its content, we should take account of the learner and his needs" (p. 16).

In a situational course units bear labels such as: "In the restaurant", "In the taxi", or "Going to the theatre". These labels reflect predictions of situations the learner is likely to find him/herself in. If the method is audio-visual, pictures will accompany each utterance pronounced by the characters in the recorded dialogue which constitutes the core of the unit. The aim is to teach the language that is necessary to perform in those situations.

Situational courses are appealing to students because of the obvious relevance they appear to exhibit. They should be efficient because they present language used in situations that are likely to be encountered by the learners. They should also stimulate the students' motivation by providing examples of language in use as well as opportunities for students to use it.

Although, in theory, these characteristics should be found in all situational syllabuses, a look at actual methods designed around situations often reveals that situational courses actually have a structural basis. This is true even for very elaborate methods such as the Structuro-Global-Audio-Visual methods: American English by the Audio-Visual Method (Filipovic, R. and Z. and L. Webster, Didier, 1962), and its equivalents for other languages, which present a gradation similar to that of traditional structural texts, in spite of a clearly situational format. Situational courses thus can prove to be structural courses in disguise. Jupp and Hodlin (1975) go as far as to say that "The situational method is not a full theory of language teaching but an appendix to the structural method. The idea is that structures should be situationalized" (p. 12).

Van Ek (1976) also shares this point of view. For him, situational courses, whether they are classroom situational, centre of interest situational, or story-line situational, are all applications of a structural framework. The implications of major structural considerations on a situational syllabus can be numerous. The situations can be limited by linguistic restrictions, and can consequently present the learners with language that is unauthentic. Another probable danger is the overriding of the situational aspect of the course content by structuro-linguistic concerns. In a teaching situation such an overriding could come to nullify the motivational element we mentioned earlier.

The lack of specificity of the situational syllabus seems to come from the rather ambiguous meaning of the term "situation" itself. On the surface, the concept of situation might seem obvious. It could embody the physical characteristics, the language interactions and the grammatical and lexical forms that are likely to occur "in the restaurant", for instance. However, these elements are not precise enough to serve as bases for the grading of a syllabus. In fact, the concept of situation is a complex one. It has received much attention lately, namely by the researchers for the Council of Europe who provided a taxonomy of situations in Threshold Level English (Van Ek, 1975).

> By situation we mean the complex of extra-linguistic conditions which determine the nature of a language act. Properly speaking, situations are strictly personal and unique... We shall henceforward distinguish four components of situations:
> 1. the 'social roles' which the learner will be able to play;
> 2. the 'psychological roles' which the learner will be able to play;
> 3. the 'settings' in which the learner will be able to use the foreign language;
> 4. the 'topics' which the learner will be able to deal with in the foreign language (p. 17).

Even if the existence as such of situational syllabuses has been questioned, their adequacy for language teaching is still defensible. Not all people engage in language learning with the aim of becoming fluent in a general way. If general fluency is the objective, it would be difficult to justify the use of situational courses as they have traditionally been presented. However, if a more limited aim is involved, the use of a situational syllabus can prove adequate. Wilkins (1976) concludes on the possible uses of the situational syllabus:

> A situational syllabus will be valuable insofar as a learner's need is to be able to handle language situations of this sort. The limited aims of a tourist, a waiter or a telephone switchboard operator might be provided for adequately this way. However, they would, by definition, be unprepared for anything "out of the ordinary" (p. 18).

Since the language spoken in a situation is not strictly dependent on the physical environment surrounding the communication, but rather on the intentions of the speakers engaged in it, a situational syllabus could perhaps serve language learning best by being incorporated as an essential component of other language teaching syllabuses such as the structural syllabus we first described or the semantic syllabus we shall now turn to.

THE SEMANTIC SYLLABUS

In this thesis the term "semantic" will be used to refer to syllabuses that have also been called notional, notional-functional, or functional. The term "semantic" offers the advantage of being broader in meaning than the terms "notional" and "functional", which are derivatives of concepts found in this approach to syllabus design, i.e. language notions and functions, and also of being related to the global "philosophy" underlying the approach. In Notional Syllabuses (Oxford University Press, 1976), Wilkins makes the following specifications about his terminology:

> In this text the terms notional and semantic are regarded as largely synonymous... These are to be interpreted as referring to the philosophy of the notional approach as a whole and not to any one part of it. The use of the term semantic is therefore deliberately extended beyond what is conventionally held to be within the domain of the field of semantics. In this sense we might equally well refer to semantic as to notional syllabuses (p. 24).

Earlier in this thesis, Mackey (1965) was quoted for his statement concerning the gradation of syllabuses. Mackey considers gradation as the aspect which characterizes, and thus serves to differentiate, types of syllabuses. His statement is certainly appropriate if we want to characterize the semantic syllabus and see how it relates to the two other types of syllabuses we described in the previous sections of this chapter.

Mackay (1977) says that the semantic approach to syllabus design is "characterized by focussing upon the notions the user is communicating rather than exclusively upon the forms of the language he is employing" (p. 85). The semantic syllabus approaches the problem of describing language and foreign language learning in a way that differs from the structural approach in that it takes the intentions of communication as its starting point. Accordingly, a new terminology has emerged which shows the "new" concern carried by this approach. Authors talk of the "uses" we make of language, of the "communicative aspect" of language, of the "functions" played by language, of the "notions" expressed through it, of the "skills" of language use, and so on. In fact, the semantic syllabus is often synthesized in questions such as: "What will the language be used for?", "What is it that people want to do with language?" (Wilkins, 1977), or "What do we want the learner to be able to communicate by means of language?" (Mackay, 1977).

The semantic syllabus is a development on what has preceded it in the field of curriculum design. The emphasis that is now being put on the communicative use made of language is not, in fact, a totally new one. In

practice, language teachers have always tried to make their students use the language they were taught by using various techniques such as the enacting of dialogues or the creation of skits, for example. As Mackay (1977) points out, the concern with what people do through language was present in the field as early as 1954 when A.S. Hornby included in his pedagogic grammar of English a section entitled "Various Concepts and How to Express Them" (p. 86). However, a syllabus type framework for the design of courses based on this perspective was not available until 1972 when Wilkins presented such a framework in The Linguistic and Situational Content of the Common Core in a Unit Credit System (Council of Europe, Committee for Out-of-School Education and Cultural Development, Strasbourg, 1972). Wilkins regards his own contribution as:

> ... having been principally to have provided a taxonomy through which semantically oriented language teaching can be systematically planned and, secondarily, to have helped to revise our understanding of the nature of language learning and teaching in the light of these innovations (1976, p. II).

We shall now turn to the description of the semantic approach to syllabus design.

Although some commercial materials are available on the market and "functional" courses are being given today, the relatively new use of semantic concepts in language teaching and the absence of a body of research on the implementation of the semantic syllabus through actual texts, does not allow for the same type of critical analysis that we used for the description of the structural syllabus. However, the relevance of the syllabus has been questioned and has also been revised to some extent by its original proponents. We shall therefore quote authors who challenge the syllabus since they help us form an opinion on the relative appropriateness of the approach for different teaching/learning situations.

In Notional Syllabuses Wilkins begins by differentiating between two types of approaches on which the gradation of a syllabus can be based: the synthetic approach and the analytic approach. For Wilkins, all syllabuses are situated somewhere along the continuum between these two approaches. As we saw in our earlier discussion of the structural syllabus, Wilkins sees the latter as the archetype of a synthetic approach to syllabus design as it is "in the first place a limitation and ordering of the forms of the linguistic system" (p. 3). We mentioned some of the most important reservations made concerning the structural syllabus and will not repeat them here. However, we shall quote Wilkins in a general comment which summarizes his views on the structural/grammatical syllabus.

> It is not generally denied that what is learned through a grammatical syllabus is of value to the learner. It is rather suggested that this is not the necessary or the most effective way of designing language courses and that, in any case, language learning is not complete when the content of a grammatical syllabus has been mastered (pp. 7-8).

Thus, for Wilkins, the synthetic approach underlying the grammatical syllabus is not, in fact, necessary or effective, nor is it complete. We could interpret "necessary" and "effective" as referring to the misconception held that syllabuses must duplicate the description of language supplied by linguists, and "complete" as referring to the lack of attention paid by the approach to the communicative aspect of language, thus offering only a partial view of the whole of language.

Wilkins believes a syllabus must be designed to accomodate the development of both grammatical and communicative competence and investigates such an avenue in Notional Syllabuses: "The aim of the present study is to find a better way of taking account of the communicative aspects of language than is possible within the framework of a grammatical syllabus" (p. 11).

As a solution, Wilkins advocates the use of an analytic approach to syllabus design:

> Analytic approaches are behavioural, (though not behaviourist). They are organized in terms of the purpose for which people are learning language and the kinds of language performance that are necessary to meet those purposes (p. 13).

Here, the dedication of the syllabus to the uses people make of language is unambiguous. What remains to be done is to develop a description of language which corresponds adequately to language in use so that it can be incorporated in a language teaching/learning syllabus. Such a description of language is a requisite for the application of an analytic approach and is emphasized by Wilkins:

> The problem of putting an analytic approach into practice is largely one of finding a way to express what it is that people do with language, so that the unavoidable process of limitation or selection can take place (p. 13).

A situational syllabus would be an example of an analytic approach to syllabus design if it were based on a behavioural analysis of situations, using a set of parameters for describing the significant features of situations. However, as we mentioned earlier, situational courses are often structural courses which are presented in the context of situations and not situational courses in the full sense of the term.

Whereas structural courses introduce units designed around chosen linguistic items, and label them accordingly, notional courses label their units using behavioural metalanguage. This does not mean that the linguistic content of a unit is forgotten however. In fact, Wilkins suggests that the linguistic content of any unit be stated. But the major difference between the two syllabuses is that the linguistic content of a notional unit is derived from a behavioural analysis and not established independently of it. Therefore, the grouping and sequencing of items in a semantic syllabus will undoubtedly differ from that of a structural syllabus since,

for a given function of language, the introduction of various structures might be necessary.

Thus, the notional syllabus is different from other syllabuses because it takes the communicative facts of language as its starting point and goes on to examine the language necessary to perform communicatively. Wilkins considers the syllabus to be potentially superior to the grammatical and situational syllabus because of its wider scope which embraces both grammatical and situational factors. Moreover, Wilkins argues that the concern with producing communicative competence by concentrating on the functions of language, should, in itself, be an important motivational factor for the learners.

In a semantic syllabus the process of gradation will vary depending on the kind of course dealt with. For a general language course, one should include those concepts and functions which are likely to be of widest value. For learners needing a more specialized language, the gradation is based on the types of content needed to express a number of functions related to a number of situations. However, whatever the type of course considered, "The process of deciding what to teach is based on considerations of what the learners should most usefully be able to communicate in the foreign language" (Wilkins, 1976, p. 19).

We shall now examine briefly the type of metalanguage used in a semantic syllabus in order to characterize the type of analysis which underlies it and observe how the syllabus is operationalized.

Wilkins distinguishes three types of meaning that can be conveyed in the uttering of a sentence: 1) propositional meaning which, in the semantic syllabus, is found under the heading "semantico-grammatical" categories (e.g. time, quantity, space); 2) modal meaning, found under

"categories of modal meaning" (e.g. obligation, possibility); and 3) function of the sentence, which refers to the use to which a sentence is being put by the speaker, and is found under "categories of communicative functions" (e.g. judgement and evaluation, suasion, argument). These categories arise from "the fundamental distinction between what we do through language and what we report by means of language" (Wilkins, 1976, p. 41).

In Threshold Level English (Pergamon Press, 1975), Van Ek submits an inventory of language functions and notions which are seen as essential for the attainment of what is considered as "the lowest level of general ability to be recognized in the unit/credit system" (p. 11). "A unit-system is a learning-system designed to cater for individual learners... It breaks down a global learning-task... into portions, or units,..." (p. 6). Threshold Level English is, in fact, an attempt at enumerating the possible language content of a course using the framework provided by Wilkins. In order to define language-learning objectives, including the items to be learned, a model is proposed which specifies the following components:

1. The situations in which the foreign language will be used, including the topics which will be dealt with; (e.g. stranger/stranger, neutrality, foreign country, indoors, accommodation, boarding house, topic = rent).
2. The language activities in which the learner will engage; (e.g. the learners will be able to complete hotel registration forms).
3. The language functions which the learners will fulfill; (e.g. imparting and seeking factual information: asking).
4. What the learner will be able to do with respect to each topic; (e.g. learners should be able to give and seek information about themselves and, if applicable, others, with regard to: name, address).
5. The general notions which the learner will be able to handle; (e.g. notions of properties and qualities: spatial and temporal; location).
6. The specific notions which the learner will be able to handle; (e.g. personal identification: "what's your name?").
7. The language forms which the learner will be able to use; (e.g. asking: question-word sentences with: what, when, for productive use).

8. The degree of skill with which the learner will be able to perform; (e.g. that as a speaker the learner can make himself easily understood by a listener with native or near-native command of the language).

As can be seen by the eight steps that have been followed in order to specify the components to be learned by a group of learners, and the examples we chose in Threshold Level English, the content of a semantic syllabus can be as detailed and specific as the content of a structural syllabus. The grouping of items is made principally on the basis of availability and coverage, rather than on the basis of frequency or range of a particular item, and the sequence of presentation of the material depends on the particular needs that have been identified for a particular group of learners.

Although the gradation within the semantic syllabus, as exemplified by that of Threshold Level English, follows a logical line coherent with the principles elaborated by Wilkins, it cannot be said to be simpler to use, from a practical point of view, than that proposed by the structural syllabus. For some, the use of such an approach to determine the content of a course is unrealistic and unnecessary. O'Neil (1977) criticizes this approach:

> My thesis here is simple. You cannot judge materials or a lesson through reference to narrow functional/notional criteria alone. An approach based solely upon such criteria is likely, ultimately, to be sterile and unpalatable... the idea that "everything I write or teach must be seen to be of direct value to the learner in situations we can predict he or she will encounter" is based on a delusion. Secondly, it cannot be carried out. Thirdly, if you try to do so, you will debauch the concept of communication itself (p. 8).

O'Neil quotes Dakin (The Language Laboratory and Language Learning, 1973, pp. 6-7) to support his own view of communication: "Communication is essentially personal, the expression of personal needs, feelings, experiences and knowledge, in situations that are never quite the

same" (in Holden, 1977, p. 8). For O'Neil, since it is impossible for anybody to have predicted what each learner will want to say in a situation, what teaching needs is a stronger concept of something which should be at the center of any approach to language teaching, that of "generalising grammar learning", a concept advocated by Wilkins and which O'Neil interprets as being the same as what Chomsky re-emphasized in the 1950's. We shall consider this concept in greater length in the next chapter when we elaborate the principles we have chosen to guide the design of our course.

Van Ek does not supply any information as to the actual techniques that should be employed in a course to present the content of a semantic syllabus to the learner. Just as repetition and substitution drills were considered to be productive devices to foster the development of linguistic automatisms in the strong application of the structural syllabus, and just as the memorization of dialogues was seen as a way of helping the learners develop their speaking abilities in the situational syllabus, it is important for materials writers and teachers to know what type of interaction has been retained by the proponents of new approaches to language teaching, in this case, the semantic approach.

Wilkins (1976) does consider some implications for the process of teaching carried by the semantic syllabus. For him, if:

> We adopt procedures that are congruent with what we regard as the proper objectives of language teaching... We need to introduce new forms of language learning materials and we need to have at our disposal new techniques of assessment (p. 77).

So far, it seems that the application of a semantic syllabus should always be seen in a perspective of communication in which a producer and receiver interact and change roles alternatingly. The use of authentic

materials is emphasized in all areas and particularly for the development of aural comprehension which, in the case of the semantic syllabus, is seen as occupying a primary position over productive skills, in the early stages of language learning. Since it is not easy to provide ideal spoken materials, the use of audio-visual equipment is seen as necessary. Finally, the use of extended discourse, in the form of dialogues is considered crucial since:

> ... learning based on a notional syllabus demands a linguistic context for utterances that is larger than the sentence and might well be founded on the typical sequence of language functions that recur in natural language use (Wilkins, 1976, p. 80).

In a course based on the semantic approach, learners have to participate actively in role-playing activities which can be based on the dialogues described above, and on problem-solving activities which require that the learner provide personal insight to the solution of a particular problem. The increasing popularity of such activities can be observed in their inclusion in recent texts and by the interest they create in conferences for language teachers.

Whereas in the traditional applications of the structural syllabus the knowledge of learners was evaluated by means of discrete-point tests or by oral assessment techniques which usually duplicated the drills used for developing language abilities, other instruments are necessary for testing within the framework of a semantic syllabus. Here the task of testing becomes more complex since the criteria are no longer solely grammatical but also cover other areas of linguistic performance such as conceptual, modal and functional meanings, that were referred to earlier. Wilkins sees adequate tests as being tests of integrated instead of isolated skills. Recently, such works as B.J. Carroll's (Testing Communicative Performance,

Oxford, Pergamon Press, 1980) have investigated the testing of communicative performance and have provided elements for the design of a criterion-oriented analysis and a norm-based approach to handling of the data.

The preceding considerations make explicit the various important demands that the use of a semantic framework, or communicative framework, imposes on the field of second/foreign language education. Not only does it involve new types of classroom interaction that require talent and ingenuity on the part of teachers who, more often than not, have to deal with groups of thirty students, but it also implies a new way of assessing language skills which differs from the techniques currently used and which demand of the professionals concerned that they be ready to accept what may seem, on the surface, to be subjective testing instruments.

As a concluding remark, we would like to mention that, in our opinion, in order to be fruitful and to be more than a passing vogue, the use of a more communicative approach for the teaching of foreign languages, mostly if it is accompanied by the adoption of new semantic texts, should be evaluated during, as well as after, its implementation in the curriculum. Only then can one have the proof of the quality of the implementation of the new syllabus as well as data that can be used to evaluate the adequacy of its different components for the tasks they should perform.

In this chapter we have examined what are usually referred to as the bases of language teaching. We have emphasized the opinion advanced by many writers -- Corder (1973), Howatt (1974), Wilkins (1976) and Prator (1979) -- that in order to be complete, a syllabus must take into account factors that are interrelated in any language teaching/learning situation.

These factors are related to aspects of theory of language, theory of learning, and to the aims of language instruction. Each of these three bases was examined in order to define its particular role in the language teaching/learning process.

In the second part of the chapter we directed our attention to the description of the three types of foreign language teaching syllabuses we believe to be the most influential today. The descriptions focussed on the principles guiding the syllabuses as well as on their use within the classroom. Different references were used to underline major areas of debate related to each syllabus. An effort was made to analyse the syllabuses in a way that showed both the type of interactions they imposed on language teaching and learning and the view of language acquisition they carried. Such a dual focus was considered desirable for the completion of our task.

As was mentioned at the beginning of the chapter, our aim in reviewing these three types of syllabuses was to find the aray of major options available to us to help decision making for syllabus design. The principles adopted to guide the conception of the course are presented in the next chapter. As such, they are guideposts derived from a personal combination of theoretical factors found in the three approaches we described rather than on any single one.

CHAPTER THREE

Syllabus designers, material writers and teachers usually operate under some sort of control or structure. Guidelines are set by government bodies, school boards, publishers, or agencies and offer some guidance, as well as limits, to the educator's range of action. The constraints in the syllabus design being discussed in this thesis are somewhat different. Obviously some factors have already been determined which, to some extent, set restrictions for the course: the population, the rationale for the course, limits of time and space. However, unlike most instances of curriculum design, we are awarded total freedom as to the approach, method and techniques to be used, since we do not have to account for our decisions to an administrative body. This is what distinguishes the present process from most of what currently exists in the world of education. Nevertheless, we are working under a self-imposed constraint: that of preparing materials that could be readily applicable in an actual teaching/learning situation.

A price must be paid for the absence of administrative control over the conception of the course, however: that of stating a general "philosophy" for the course, that of elaborating a set of guidelines, and that of conceiving a coherent body of techniques and materials. Ultimately, the product should prove to be somewhat original, otherwise, this would mean

there was no justification for the design of this course in the first place.

We shall first consider the general aim of the course and the concept of specific purpose in language teaching/learning as applied to this project. This should set the project in its own perspective. Next will come the principles we have chosen, or elaborated, to guide the design of the course. These will be approached in the light of the three bases of language teaching/learning we referred to in the second chapter, namely, linguistics, psychology and education. Then we shall turn to the criteria selected for grouping and sequencing of the syllabus content. Finally, we shall provide the guidelines as to the type of classroom interaction and teaching/learning techniques to be favoured for the implementation of the syllabus.

THE NEED FOR A GLOBAL APPROACH

As we stated in Chapter One, the aim of the present thesis is to design a course in English as a second language for a population of French-Canadians who go to Florida regularly. The elements contained in this general aim can serve two purposes. First, they set boundaries and they provide a point of focus for the design of the course itself and for the preparation of the materials. Second, each element that makes up the aim carries, in itself, enough information potential for the elaboration of a global approach on which to base the design of the course.

By approach we mean a sort of bias, a personal view -- that should be constant -- that will give the course a colour of its own. In fact, all courses can be said to have their own "personality", a blend of theory and its application in a specific set of materials. In our opinion, the properties and qualities of a course should be the result of conscious

choices made in the light of a global approach adopted for a specific instance of curriculum design.

Our choices will be made according to what we consider important in the composition of each element that makes up the general aim, i.e. what is meant by 1) "a course" in 2) "English as a second language" for 3) a "population of French-Canadians" 4) "who go to Florida regularly".

By "a course" we mean a specific product of applied linguistic, psychological and educational principles, limited in time and space. The term "English as a second language" defined as "the situation where two languages are used for different purposes in the same community" (Howatt, 1974, p. 2), can be misleading, as could be the term "English as a foreign language" which implies "that there is a fairly clear distinction in people's minds between a home community and a foreign community, each speaking a different language" (Howatt, 1974, p. 2). Instead, we believe we are dealing with a blend of both concepts which would be better described as "English as a non-native language which is familiar to the learners". Therefore, "a course" in "English" for a "population of French-Canadians", i.e., a particular group of people who are undoubtedly all unique, but who share common characteristics which can be assumed to affect language learning. A group of people of a certain age, sharing the same mother tongue, the same culture, who have been exposed to a certain type of education and to a certain amount of English so far in their lives. And finally, "who go to Florida regularly", which constitutes both the reason for language learning and the setting for its future use.

These four elements constitute a body of factors which enables us to refer to the course as a case of English for specific purposes. Mackay and Mountford (1978) identify two characteristics possessed by courses

labelled ESP:

> This "field" of English language teaching possesses two important characteristics which influence profoundly the methodology not only of materials production but of classroom activity: firstly, the close association of special purpose language teaching with adult learners, or, at least, learners at the post-secondary level of general education; and secondly, the important auxiliary role that the English language is called upon to play in such cases (p. 2).

If these characteristics of ESP courses subsequently influence both the production of materials and classroom activity, they can be said to create conditions for language learning, which also contribute to the environment within which the making of a specific approach for the course is to be conceived.

In this course, the use we will make of what we know about the learners and the setting for the use of the second language, combined with the linguistic, psychological and educational principles we have chosen to adhere to, shall be influenced by the desire to attain our main objective: that of designing a course that would provide adult learners who have French as their mother tongue with a basic communicative competence in English that would enable them to function more efficiently as tourists or part-time residents in an English-speaking environment.

We particularly like the concept of specific purpose, as described by Mackay and Mountford, and will endeavour to make our course "genuinely" ESP. This does not mean that we want to follow a particular framework of ESP type of course design, however. What is implied rather is that we think we are dealing with an ideal instance of English for specific purposes and that we shall take advantage of this. Not only are we working on a course where "learning aims can be defined in terms of these specific purposes to which language will be put" (Mackay and Mountford, 1978, p. 3), but we are also dealing with a course for a specific clientele, living

a specific kind of life in a specific setting. In fact, there are many specific things about this instance of curriculum design and it is in the account we will take of these specifics that the course should acquire its "colour".

We shall now turn to the principles, or guidelines, we have adopted. They have been arrived at by trying to visualize how language learning could best take place within the boundaries of the course, using what seems to be particularly relevant in current theory and also using occasionally what is sometimes forgotten or what has been forbidden in the field of language teaching/learning (the "dogmatic dos and don'ts of not so long ago" Taggart, 1980, p. 20).

This will be facilitated by the fact that we adopt a specific purpose perspective for the design of the course, a perspective, we believe, which allows for much greater freedom in methodology than does general course design which may require the writer to take the learner from point A to point Z over a period of five years.

We see the course as an entity, complete in itself, even though it will, in fact, only deal with a limited portion of the English language. Therefore, the course should not be considered as the first level of a series of courses to be offered to beginners aiming at general fluency. It is rather a course for people who want to improve their communicative skills in English, and will include materials designed for people who have a very limited knowledge of English syntax. We think, however, that the framework could also be used for learners who already have a basic command of English since its design is not linear and allows for the introduction of other language items that are not covered in the course.

GUIDING PRINCIPLES

The Living Webster Encyclopedic Dictionary of the English Language (1971) defines the word "principle" as:

> A general truth; ... a method or rule adopted as the basis for action or conduct; ... the primary source from which anything proceeds; ... a law on which others are founded or from which others are derived (p. 757).

The following ideas certainly are not truths. At best they are beliefs. They are ideas that have intuitional appeal and which seem to reflect the current "state of the art" in the area of curriculum design and second language acquisition. This is why they have been "adopted for action or conduct".

In the same way that each individual idea retained here does not claim to be a fully fledged principle, the set of ideas does not pretend to be comprehensive. However, the ideas do cover a range of factors which take into account the three dimensions encountered in method, i.e., linguistic, psychological and educational, and are considered to be sufficient for our current purpose.

Although method is derived from three distinct areas of knowledge, and principles can be elaborated that come from each of them, it is not easy, in practice, to order a set of guidelines supporting an actual course into three distinct categories. Applied to a teaching/learning situation, linguistic, psychological and educational principles blend and interact to become operational. Therefore, we have chosen to present the principles under a single heading starting with those pertaining to linguistic concerns to move on to principles that are derived from psychological and educational theory.

In the following section we shall state some general principles which are seen as basic in the areas composing method. As enunciated in the

Webster's definition of "principle", these are the "law(s) on which others are founded or from which others are derived". We will enumerate these secondary ideas as they will clarify the orientation of the different tasks and aspects involved in curriculum design. Ultimately, the various guidelines which are proposed should form a coherent, if inevitably incomplete, body of method. The translation of the principles into the actual course will be carried out in Chapters Four and Five.

1 TEACH LANGUAGE AS AND FOR COMMUNICATION

This principle is at the heart of the course. It is taken from Widdowson (1980). It emphasizes the communicative character of language that should be preserved when language is presented to the learner, as well as the desired outcome of the teaching/learning process. The choice of this principle as the focus for the course goes beyond the current popularity of the concept in the field of language teaching. We believe that the specific purpose involved in the course we are designing is exactly a purpose of communication. In our opinion, the need for such a course is the result of a realization made by this population of learners that comes from having experienced, while in Florida, difficulties in communicating with people in their environment. Consequently, if they approach language learning as a solution to their communication problem it appears logical that the course they take should aim at teaching language both as and for communication. If this is done, the materials and their use in the course should prove to be pedagogically productive. They should appeal to the learners by their explicit resemblance to language in use and they should foster the development of communicative linguistic skills by presenting language as communication and encouraging the expression, on the learners' part, of language for communicative purposes.

An important question surfaces at this point, however: How can we present language as communication to beginners? At first sight, teaching language as communication would seem to imply the use, in the classroom, of documents which present language used naturally, without pedagogic modifications. This point has been considered by Widdowson (1980, pp. 18-19). We agree with his conclusions to the effect that if the objectives of language learning have to do with the use of the language as effective communication, it does not automatically follow that a syllabus be made up exclusively of authentic materials. For pedagogical considerations we may decide to use different types of linguistic data to expose the learners to what we feel is more important to recognize at a given level. However, we shall try to use authentic materials as much as possible and facilitate its decoding by allowing the learners to tap the ressources they feel they need in order to understand, and to learn. We shall elaborate more on this idea when we consider principles related to learning.

With respect to the terminology to be used to present and to comment on language, we shall use a metalanguage which derives mainly from a very broad use of notional-functional terms as well as terms found in structural descriptions of language. Although the method will be eclectic in essence and shall draw from the three approaches we described in the previous chapter for the classroom techniques to be used, the focus itself will remain constant: the objective is to teach the communicative use of language.

At this stage of course development, two notions are particularly useful to determine with more precision what is implied by the term "communicative use" of language: that of communicative competence and that of "competence of transfer". The former shall be approached in the path traced by Corder (1973), Widdowson (1978, 1980, 1981) and Wilkins (1976, 1981). By examining

briefly what is implied in language performance and the communicative use of language, criteria can be identified which will facilitate a gradation of items in the syllabus adequate for the development of a communicative competence in the target language. This conception is further reinforced by factors which are particular to the situation we are dealing with, such as the proximity of the L1 and L2 codes.

It is this proximity between French and English which incites us to talk about a "competence of language transfer". In our opinion, "competence of transfer" is in fact a part of the broader concept of "communicative competence". Competence of transfer refers to the possible and desirable positive uses of language transfer, that is, the ability to make use of or exploit transfer of the knowledge one already possesses of how to communicate using language. In the next section we shall discuss what implications these two notions have on the course and we shall also examine the various uses of the mother tongue in the teaching and learning of the L2.

It must be remembered that these two notions are examined here in their applicability to the particular situation we are considering and that although they may be relevant to other situations, or to language learning in general, the scope of the dissertation does not allow us to consider these other applications.

COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE

USE AND USAGE

In his critical description of the grammatical syllabus Corder (1973) states: "The learning of something must surely involve the ability to use it acceptably, i.e., discover its function" (p. 310). Further in the book another statement is made which makes explicit the type of use

intended above: "The object of language learning is to be able to communicate" (p. 312). For Corder communication is the observable outcome of the psychological process referred to as language performance. It involves both receptive and productive skills.

Wilkins (1976) agrees with Corder as to the aim of language learning. For him people who speak the same language share a communicative competence which includes a grammatical competence -- the aspect which was stressed in the grammatical approach. For Wilkins: "The learner has to learn rules of communication as well as rules of grammar" (p. 11).

Widdowson (1978) also acknowledges both these aspects found in language performance when he introduces the notions of usage and use. However, Widdowson goes beyond this theoretical distinction by providing guidelines for the grading of items within a syllabus in which the communicative aspect of language is emphasized. This is done by examining the two kinds of meaning found in the manifestation of the language system as usage and its realization as use:

> Sentences have meaning as instances of usage: they express propositions by combining words into structures in accordance with grammatical rules. We will call this kind of meaning signification. The second kind of meaning is that which sentences and parts of sentences assume when they are put to use for communicative purposes. We will refer to this as value (p. 11).

Widdowson advocates the design of language teaching courses with reference to use, instead of usage, since the knowledge of rules of usage is automatically implied in the communicative use of language. In this respect, Widdowson suggests that items with the highest potential "value" be introduced first in a course since they are the ones most likely to be needed by the learner.

The preceding considerations enable a more precise specification of the general principle we first proposed; we shall teach language as and for communication by following these rules:

#2 | IN TEACHING, FIRST EMPHASIZE ASPECTS OF LANGUAGE USE, THEN ASPECTS OF USAGE

#3 | WHEN SELECTING AND GRADING LANGUAGE ITEMS CHOOSE THOSE WITH HIGHEST POTENTIAL VALUE PRIMARILY

INTERNALIZING GRAMMAR

As much as we believe in the importance of communicative realizations of language in a language teaching course, we also think that language is a system and must also be presented as such. Language is organized. It shows evidence of rules governing its formation. A functional presentation of language in a course does not erase the necessity of some kind of learning of the rules governing language. If the sometimes totally exclusive focus on the form or structure of language (usage) that characterized the structural approach did not constitute an ideal model for language teaching - even for the syntactic component of language - the problem of developing a communicative competence, which of course includes grammatical competence, is not automatically resolved by adopting a new set of terms for describing language. This is what Widdowson stresses in his introduction to Teaching Language As Communication (Oxford University Press, 1978):

> "We do not progress very far in our pedagogy by simply replacing abstract isolates of a linguistic kind by those of a cognitive or behavioural kind." (p. IX).

What we need is an approach which has a potential of facilitating the internalization of grammatical rules without abandoning the concern for the communicative use of language.

The need for this is recognized explicitly by most researchers we referred to in this thesis. For Corder (1973) the task of the designer is to teach items which are related to each other to enable the learner "to discover underlying regularities, or, as we called them... "significant generalizations" (p. 306). Interestingly, as pointed out by O'Neil (1977), Wilkins (1976) is the one who specifies this notion of generalization as applicable to a semantic syllabus thus making it clear that the adoption of a semantic approach to language teaching, --or of any broader communicative approach for that matter --is by no means a refutation of the importance of the grammatical component of language. For Wilkins:

> "Language teaching depends on our ability to make generalizations about language structure, otherwise language learning would be the acquisition of individual sentences or utterances... In the case of the grammar, one achieves generalization by focussing on the most productive aspects of the grammatical system, aspects where on the basis of a few examples a rule can be formulated which then applies very widely through the language. In the case of the functional aspects of language, one looks for a recurrent association between a given function and certain linguistic features." (p. 56).

In order to point out the elements we will put to practical use in the design of the course that are derived from this important concept of generalizing grammar learning we have formulated these rules:

#4 | TEACHING ASPECTS OF USE WILL BE DONE BY PRESENTING LANGUAGE FIRST AND MAINLY USING A METALANGUAGE WHICH EMPHASIZES THE FUNCTIONS WHICH LANGUAGE FULFILLS

#5 | WHEN PRESENTED TO THE LEARNERS, THE METALANGUAGE SHALL BE KEPT GENERAL AND SIMPLE

#6 AFTER HAVING PARTICIPATED IN RECEPTIVE AND PRODUCTIVE USE OF LANGUAGE IN (A) CHOSEN FUNCTION(S), THE LEARNERS WILL BE GIVEN EXPLANATIONS AND PRACTICE ON THE LINGUISTIC FEATURES WHICH REALIZE THE FUNCTION

In their emphasis on the importance of helping learners internalize grammatical rules, Corder (1973) and Wilkins (1981) mention some factors which may help attaining this goal. Corder, who seems to favour techniques which aim at having learners discover the rules, stresses the importance of developing receptive skills before productive skills:

> "...obviously some exposure to language is necessary in order to discover its rules, and consequently some learning of receptive skills must logically precede productive activity." (p. 321).

In his address at the 1981 SPEAQ convention in Montreal, Wilkins (Note 2) made concrete suggestions for the implementation of communicative teaching in the public school system, a setting in which the usual procedure of identifying learners' needs, establishing notions and functions to be taught and listing the linguistic forms needed to carry out the functions, cannot, in practice, be followed. These suggestions are seen as relevant even for a specific situation such as ours. Wilkins suggests that general characteristics of language such as statements, questions and requests be stressed in the early stages of language learning, always using language that is highly contextualized. The second suggestion made dealt with the misleading traditional gradation of skills. Wilkins sees the optimal sequence as being: reading, writing, listening and speaking. This sequence is based on a learner's perspective, in that it starts with the language activities that are easiest to engage in. Factors such as time constraint, availability of materials, and classroom restrictions justify this gradation.

In our opinion, what Wilkins in fact points out are the serious problems learners are faced with when trying to speak using a second or foreign language. To speak a learner must draw from his/her own linguistic repertoire, under severe time constraints. In a classroom setting, speaking processes can only be stimulated if students are frequently exposed to conditions that encourage the use of this productive skill. In reality, many factors are at play which make oral skills difficult to master.

The specific purpose involved in the course considered in this thesis and the highly limited number of classroom hours to be had go against the integral application of Wilkins' sequence of skills here. However, it is our opinion that:

#7 MAJOR EMPHASIS SHALL BE PUT ON THE DEVELOPMENT OF ORAL RECEPTIVE AND PRODUCTIVE SKILLS

#8 THE LEARNERS' LISTENING ABILITIES WILL BE TRAINED MOSTLY OUT OF CLASS USING RECORDED MATERIALS. SPEAKING SKILLS WILL BE EMPHASIZED DURING CONTACT HOURS

#9 GENERAL CHARACTERISTICS OF LANGUAGE SUCH AS STATEMENTS, QUESTIONS AND REQUESTS SHALL CONSTITUTE THE LINGUISTIC FOCUS FOR THE COURSE. THESE GENERAL CHARACTERISTICS SHALL BE PRESENTED AS CONSTITUENTS OF THE LANGUAGE FUNCTIONS COMPOSING THE COURSE

#10 ALL THE ACTIVITIES MAKING UP THE COURSE SHALL PRESENT LANGUAGE AND LANGUAGE ITEMS IN RELATION TO SOCIAL CONTEXTS THEY ARE LIKELY TO BE APPLIED IN

So far we have considered principles that deal with the linguistic component of method. These principles show the importance given to the teaching of communicative aspects of language performance and to the development of both receptive and productive skills. However, in order to make the process of communication elaborated so far more complete, we need to add another component which is also at play in communication, i.e., the culture of the population speaking the target language as may be experienced by the learners in their social transactions in Florida.

For the scope of this course, cultural information shall deal only with aspects which are directly relevant to the language syllabus presented in the course. For instance, the teacher could have the learners relate experiences they had when eating out in cafeteria style restaurants in order to make them realize that when they are in such a setting factors are at play which contribute to giving the visitor a feeling of being lost, unable to respond to the employees' sometimes rude behaviour. Therefore,

#11	WHENEVER APPROPRIATE, TRAITS PERTAINING TO LIFE AND PEOPLE IN FLORIDA SHOULD BE DISCUSSED

We are aware of the dangers of stereotyping involved in such a principle, but we do not feel that this justifies its not being incorporated in the course.

COMPETENCE OF TRANSFER

In Chapter one we pointed out the fact that some communication can take place even with a very limited command of a language. We also mentioned that this was often indirectly recognized by French-Canadians in Florida in their accounts of situations where they made themselves understood and

where they, themselves, understood a message even though they "didn't speak English". Such situations are good examples of the important role played by the para-linguistic components of communication such as gesture and facial expressions. Much of our everyday oral communication depends on para-linguistic cues. However, we would also like to think of these situations as examples of the underlying structure of communication in a second or foreign language.

The view we adopt of communication is that which stresses the negotiation of meaning implied in it. In this perspective, speaking a target language is seen as the encoding in a L2 of an actual intention of signification. A speaker wants to communicate an idea or a feeling - a meaning - in a code which is not his/her mother tongue. It is in this perspective that we approach the active role played by competence of transfer in communication.

In our opinion, the adult learner who is involved in communicating with another speaker using the language spoken by the latter, -- the L2 -- can be seen as trying to encode in a language the meanings s/he would like to get across. In oral production the speaker has to rely on his/her own L2 repertoire. The latter can range from a complete ignorance of the L2 code to a fully developed knowledge of it. The aspect we would like to emphasize is that a speaker never starts from level zero when communicating in a L2. People already have a fully developed and operational tool at their disposal which is used unconsciously in any situation of communication: the communicative competence they possess in their own native language. Competence of transfer thus refers to the use made of this knowledge in communicating in a L2.

Competence of transfer is an "ability" in Candlin's (Note 3) sense of the term. It is something which learners already make use of. It differs from a "skill" which refers to the conscious means used by a learner to discover or convey meaning, such as using a dictionary. For Candlin, abilities cannot be taught; they can only be "called up". This distinction is useful because it makes clear the fact that what we refer to as "competence of transfer" is an ability shared, in various degrees, by all speakers.

If competence of transfer is an ability and as such cannot be taught, it can, on the other hand, be recognized by the syllabus designer and, in turn, by the learners. Is it not rather odd to see that methods and fully developed series of textbooks which aim at teaching a language do not even recommend that the teacher spend five minutes of a course to discuss with the learners what is implied in communicating using a second/foreign language? It would seem rather obvious, for a group of adult learners in any case, that some clues or views on how communication takes place be discussed at the beginning of a course which aims at teaching learners how to communicate using a foreign language.

In our opinion, some time should be spent discussing what goes on in communication. The teacher should try to show the learners, by using examples, that they can communicate - and probably already have done so - with a speaker of the target language without even knowing one word of that language. Such an activity should produce two results. First, it should make the learners aware of the clues we look for and use to convey meaning. Second, if the discussion was accompanied by activities which required the learners to participate in some kind of reconstruction of such situations,

it should help the learners gain confidence in their potential to communicate using a L2, even if they have a very limited command of that language. It is from the preceding considerations that the following principle is derived:

#12 | LEARNERS SHOULD HAVE THE OPPORTUNITY TO DISCOVER THAT THEY ALREADY HAVE COMMUNICATIVE ABILITY IN THE TARGET LANGUAGE

We referred to communication in a L2 as negotiation of meaning using the L2 code. In practice, however, an intermediate step between the "cerebral" source or representation of communication and its actualization in the L2 code is followed: this step is the mother tongue of the speaker. We think that adult L2 speakers use their L1 to conceptualize the meaning they want to convey or understand in the L2. This use of their L1 is not a choice on their part. We think it is absolutely natural and normal that an adult speaker should approach communication the way s/he ordinarily does it, using a fully developed mechanism: the mother tongue.

In the realm of communication in a L2, the first language of a learner is the only point of reference the learner can use. Dependence on this point of reference should vary with the level of competence reached in the L2. The less one knows of the L2, the more one relies on one's native language. Since the learners involved here are beginners, we postulate that they will rely quite heavily on French when communicating in and learning English. This unavoidable tendency is in fact reinforced here by four factors other than the more cognitive one we already mentioned. First, the increasing intolerance for ambiguities which usually develops with age should push them to refer to French -- the code they know -- to clarify ambiguities. Second, the fact that the learners are seldom alone

in Florida when they engage in communication with speakers of English also reinforces the tendency fall back on French since the actual necessity to use the L2 often occurs as an "exceptional moment" in a life led in French with other French-Canadians. The use of aspects of French will range from transfer of patterns of communication to the employment of specific French words. The third factor is also related to this grouping behaviour which, we think, goes against L2 use on the part of the learners since they have to engage in communication using a code they do not fully master in front of other people they know; a situation which usually inhibits linguistic behaviour. The last factor which supports the reliance on the mother tongue when communicating in the target language has to do with the proximity of French and English as linguistic codes. French and English share thousands of cognates and also share structures which are quite similar. These similarities are felt and very often are consciously known by the learners and consequently are made use of. Thus, if using one's L1 to communicate can be said to be a natural phenomenon exhibited by all L2 speakers, reference to French to communicate in English is a natural extension of this phenomenon since it is derived from the hypothesis -- productive in this case -- that the second language is similar to the first. As reported by Hakuta and Cancino (1977) for researchers involved in error analysis studies this postulate reflects the active process of hypothesis testing which is considered an important device for the acquisition of a foreign language.

In our opinion, if communicative abilities can be transfered from one language to another and if reference to one's first language is natural -- and we believe it is -- then techniques must be devised to show the learners how to take advantage of these resources. This is what is implied in the next principle.

13 LEARNERS SHOULD BE TAUGHT HOW TO MAKE POSITIVE USE OF THE COMPETENCE THEY HAVE ALREADY ACQUIRED IN THEIR MOTHER TONGUE AND OF THE PROXIMITY BETWEEN FRENCH AND ENGLISH

Making use of the first language does not mean using translation as a basic activity to develop competence, nor does it mean that a second language course should be taught in a language other than the target language. We think that this principle covers, in fact, three different aspects of the use of the mother tongue. First is the level of communication. At this level, making positive use of the communicative competence one has already developed in one's mother tongue means, as postulated by Widdowson (1981):

> ... appliquer à des données langagières nouvelles la compétence de communication qu'il a acquise avec sa langue maternelle... (p. 20).

or explained in other words by Widdowson (1980):

> ... to make the learner realize that the foreign language operates by means of the same communicative principles as his own (p. 25).

In the present ESP course this will be done by selecting the linguistic content of the course according to the "problems" or situations the learners have to solve or take part in when they are in Florida. If the syllabus focusses on situations encountered in the target language setting and uses these as major components for the course, learning the L2 is thus the necessary task to be accomplished by the learner who is trying to negotiate meaning to sustain and complete communication in the L2. In our opinion, it must be pointed out that the actual concept of teaching and learning a language for specific purposes really acquires its full value when the learning of a language is approached in the way described above i.e., by concentrating on the "problems" encountered by the learners in the L2 environment. Contrary to general course design, the specific settings and situations involved in a ESP course constitute a source of pertinent and motivating types of problems

which can be used to teach the language. Moreover, using actual situations of communication as starting points for language learning should engender appropriate conditions for a genuine interaction between the teacher and learners.

We think that the type of transfer mentioned by Widdowson will be facilitated by presenting the content of the course, i.e., the language, first as a set of functions which are carried out by language. The learners will thus be first faced with linguistic activities which must be accomplished in another code rather than with a linguistic item or structure which they are asked to master. The latter technique could result in seeing learners trying to find the L1 equivalent for a structure of the L2, a process which would bring learning closer to translation than to transfer.

The second area covered by the principle is that of language. Making use of the proximity between French and English refers to the specific areas of language that could be developed very rapidly by encouraging the learners to associate elements of their L1 to that of the target language they are learning. For our course we will focus mainly on cognates. French and English share thousands of words which for the most part, have kept the same meaning. By encouraging the learners to draw from their L1 repertoire when communication fails, and also as a skill for building one's vocabulary, we believe linguistic competence can be developed much more rapidly than would be the case if the L1 and the target language were approached as completely dissociated entities. Moreover, encouraging reference to such abilities is only a recognition of what learners probably already do when trying to learn a L2. As such, it does not constitute a new approach to language teaching and learning but simply a systematization of an already existing process.

It is by making use of what one already knows at the two levels of competence of transfer we have just mentioned that language learning becomes a build-up of skills on an already existing base rather than an entirely new area of knowledge to be developed, as we stated on page 15 of this thesis.

From the postulate we put forward to the effect that adult learners most likely possess and use a transfer "ability" (Candlin's sense of the term) when learning and communicating in a second/foreign language, is derived this principle:

#14 | REFERENCE TO THE "TRANSFER ABILITY" OF LEARNERS SHALL BE EMPHASIZED IN THE COURSE IN ORDER TO DEVELOP THE LEARNERS' COMPETENCE OF TRANSFER

Specific activities related to transfer shall be used for three distinct areas of the syllabus:

1) for the broader concept of using language as and for communication, transfer shall be approached by showing learners that communication is achieved through functions which languages fulfill and that these necessary functions are common to both French and English. Therefore, the equation between language acts in French and in English is appropriate;
2) for the actual classroom interaction to be privileged, transfer shall be encouraged by presenting learners with problems or situations - typical of the expected use of the L2 in the target language setting - which must be solved or carried out using English;
3) and for the language items needed to carry out the functions. For this last point we believe it is useful to distinguish between the use of transfer for the syntactic structures of the L1 and L2 and for the lexical items of the two codes.

For the syntactic structures of the L2, transfer shall be approached by presenting the structures -- realizing a typical request, for instance -- as being particular to the L2, therefore to be learned as different from the L1. We shall present structures as "wholes" first, to later stress their generative power. This idea is related to the concept of "routine formulas" and "prefabricated utterances" as reported by Hakuta and Cancino (1977, p. 309).

With respect to these undecomposed chunks of language we believe that imitation is an important process in language development and that it is often reflected in the idiosyncratic use of such utterances in the speech of L2 learners. Therefore, when introducing functions which are usually carried out using prefabricated utterances we shall encourage the learning of the utterance as a whole first and then show its constituents. We believe that this approach may be closer to the process of progressive decoding which may characterize language learning. In this perspective learners are seen as recognizing, in the speech of L2 speakers, structures which often recur in certain situations. Through memory and imitation learners then incorporate these structures or utterances in their own speech, trying them out to achieve communication, and progressively decomposing them to ultimately reach the level where they can fully inflect all the constituents of the utterance.

For the lexical items of the target language, transfer shall be encouraged by presenting words as concepts and by showing that a large number of English words correspond to similar words in French describing similar concepts or realities. Learners will also be shown that word derivation is achieved in quite the same ways in French and in English and that word derivation is an economical and productive strategy for learning vocabulary. Finally "risk-taking" strategies shall be stressed

by encouraging learners to refer to their French lexical baggage to compensate for the missing components in their own L2 grammar.

The third and last level of application of the mother tongue of the learners is that of the use of the mother tongue of the learners by both the teacher and learners in class.

The use we shall make of the mother tongue of the learners in the course derives directly from the following principle which pertains not only to the linguistic but also to the psychological and educational components of method.

15 | WHEN ENGAGED IN A COURSE, LEARNERS MUST UNDERSTAND WHAT THEY ARE DOING AND HOW THEY SHOULD APPROACH LANGUAGE LEARNING

With respect to this principle, the mother tongue of the learners shall be used in class for purposes of presenting the course to the learners, for clarifying the nature of learning activities, for explaining a difficult problem, and for any discussion -- affective or other -- that necessarily accompanies teaching/learning courses which are open to student feedback.

So far, we have considered principles which relate mainly to the linguistic component of method. In order to specify how the general principle of teaching language as and for communication could be achieved -- a principle which in fact constitutes the global approach for the course -- we examined the concept of communicative competence in relation to the course to be outlined. We discussed the areas of use and usage and the place of grammar in the course. We proposed the exploitation and development of a competence of transfer as an important productive tool for the population of learners considered here.

We shall now move to other principles which aim at specifying the types of interactions to be emphasized in the teaching/learning process. These will come mainly from applying views held in the psychological and educational areas composing method. We shall conclude by providing a framework which synthesizes the different constituents interacting in the making of the set of guidelines on which we choose to base the course.

In order to help the learners understand how the course is structured, learning objectives will be stated at the beginning of each unit. The learning objectives shall not only specify the "degree of capacity to perform the terminal behaviour" (Wilkins, 1976, p. 15), but shall also explain to the learners what has to be learned and how learning will be approached in the unit. Therefore, the stating of objectives at the beginning of each unit is a way of helping learners understand what will be done in the course in addition to making explicit the linguistic (functional-syntactic-structural) content of each unit. Consequently:

#16 | LEARNING OBJECTIVES WILL BE STATED AT THE BEGINNING OF EACH UNIT, IN THE STUDENTS' DOCUMENTS, AND WILL BE EXPLAINED BY THE TEACHER IN CLASS

This procedure not only respects principles 4 and 15, it also should help learners feel they are actually learning by pointing out what is being learned and how progression is achieved. As such the stating of objectives is a methodological device which brings together the concern of the course for the listing of the parts of the target language it emphasizes, for their pedagogical presentation to the learners, and for the learners' natural and logical expectations towards the course.

The organization of the syllabus material according to criteria of "surrender value" (Corder, 1973, p. 318) i.e., the focus on the most useful

functions of the language (principle # 3), combined with the stating of objectives should make learners realize they are gaining communicative skills in the target language from the very beginning of the course.

Another important aspect of any teaching/learning activity is also related to the stating of objectives: that of review. Howatt (1974) considers review as an essential component of a language teaching syllabus. For Howatt: "The lack of opportunity for constant revision is the most glaring defect in foreign language teaching courses." (p. 18). The adoption of an approach which is primarily semantic, rather than structural, as well as the use of a "spiral" or "cyclical" progression rather than a linear one should help get around this problem. We believe language must be continually re-experienced in order to be developed. This is what justifies the next principle:

#17 | SYSTEMATIC REVIEW OF LANGUAGE FUNCTIONS AND VOCABULARY SHALL BE PROVIDED FOR IN THE COURSE

If the stating of objectives can serve to fulfill different important aspects of language teaching and learning and if language development needs constant review in order to be stabilized, it is also important that a course should provide elements that give the materials and activities an aspect of continuity and coherence.

In the course considered here, coherence shall derive from the constant bias for a certain type of interaction favoured in the course and found in the activities, a bias which is a correlate of the "specifics" involved in this ESP course. Continuity will be created by the introduction of a storyline and of characters that will be present throughout the units. The storyline will also serve purposes of grading and sequencing since it will constitute

the pretext for the introduction of specific functions, in chosen contexts, calling for selected lexical items. The choice of character types will try to reflect the population the course is intended for.

18 | CHARACTERS EXPERIENCING VARIOUS SITUATIONS WILL BE USED TO PRESENT THE CONTENT OF THE COURSE AND TO LINK ITS UNITS

This course is designed to enable French-Canadian adults to function more effectively in a setting where English is spoken. The objective is thus concerned with the real world. However, here the actual development of communicative linguistic skills has to be accomplished in an educational setting, i.e., a setting different from the real world. Since the population of learners considered here is one of "beginners" we think this artificial setting can better serve language learning than the L2 environment they find themselves in when in Florida. Beginners often lack the tools to easily take charge of their own language development in a target language setting and we have shown that this particular difficulty is greatly increased here by psychological and sociological factors such as the age, homogeneity and nesting pattern of the population. Therefore, we do not see the artificial setting in which learning will take place as detrimental to the goal aimed at. In fact, we support the contrary. (See Krashen (1976, 1980) for his discussion on the "comprehensible input" hypothesis).

By approaching the course as specialized training to be given to a specific group of learners and by controling different variables that may affect language development such as the linguistic input provided by the teacher and the materials, learning activities designed to foster the development of specific skills, and by focussing on the most communicatively productive components of language, a minimal communicative competence can be developed which will serve the learners for immediate language use and also for further language learning.

We believe language training can be better achieved if the premises governing its teaching and learning are made explicit at the beginning of the course. The classroom is not the "real world" and should not pretend to be what it is not. It would be an impossible task to try to recreate Florida and the interactions experienced by the population visiting or temporarily living there in a classroom. Therefore we think that this should be made clear before engaging in language teaching and learning. Nevertheless, if the classroom can never be Florida, it can be used to create an environment in which the learning of skills necessary for communication in Florida can be activated. In this perspective language teaching and learning becomes a "game", a process. It is by specifying and justifying the rules governing this "game" that language teaching and learning can become more efficient. We believe that the comprehension and acceptance by learners and teachers, of the types of classroom interaction that will guide language training can only help make the process more effective.

For the present course, such mutual agreement should be facilitated by the independence and motivation characterizing the learners' decision to engage in a language learning course and by the concern of the course with enabling learners to use what they learn both within and outside the classroom. In the case of the present course, language learning is a process which will first take place in a classroom, i.e., a setting different from the real world. It is in a classroom setting that learners will get ready to benefit from other settings.

# 19	THE RULES GOVERNING THE WORKING OF THE COURSE SHALL BE EXPLAINED AND JUSTIFIED TO THE LEARNERS BEFORE ENGAGING IN THE ACTUAL TEACHING/LEARNING PROCESS

Earlier we referred to the course as being "training". In our opinion a course carrying this type of specific purpose bears characteristics associated with training activities. The course is language "training" in that it aims at enabling learners to function in a foreign environment. It is concerned with the acquisition of basic skills to be later used. We would also like to think of the course as training in the sense that its completion should provide the learners with the necessary tools to further language learning individually, without the help of a teacher. The emphasis given so far to aspects of teaching and learning should help the learners become efficient and independent language learners by showing them what resources to tap, what behaviour to adopt to foster language development. In this sense, to use an analogy, this ESP course is not very different from fitness training courses which aim at giving people the information and training they need to incorporate physical activities in their daily life, in a systematic way. Thus, the course is also concerned with long range outcomes in the types of strategies learners will use when they are in Florida.

#20 | THIS ESP COURSE IS A LANGUAGE TRAINING COURSE. IT ALSO AIMS AT SHOWING LEARNERS HOW TO FURTHER THEIR OWN LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT OUTSIDE THE REALM OF THE COURSE

The principles elaborated so far undoubtedly place important demands on learners. Whereas these demands could be considered unrealistic in the world of general education --where students are often required to take courses which they have not chosen -- they can be seen as reasonable here because of the independent motives justifying the learners' decision to take

the course. However, reasons for the nurturing of rather high expectations are also found in the constitution of the course itself. Some choices made by the designer should be felt and appreciated by the learners, reinforcing their motivation to learn.

These are related to the expectations and experience of the learners. Adult learners approach language learning with expectations and experience. The expectations of learners should find their counterpart in the general objectives outlined for a course. If learners want a course which will enable them to communicate in daily situations in English when they are in Florida, the objective of the chosen course should be related directly, or at least indirectly, to that purpose. This correspondance between learners, expectations and course objectives should be adequate here. However, if expectations and course objectives meet, it must be remembered that these constitute the beginning and end of a process. In our opinion, the means to reach the ends should also be coherent with the participants in learning. In the present course a special effort shall be made to respect the experience of learners. More particularly, attention shall be paid to 1) learners' past experience as learners in the general education system, 2) the learners' experience of life in Florida, and 3) to the life experience of learners in general.

In Chapter One the fact that French-Canadian adult learners often arrive to their first class with an almost non-existent ability to understand oral English but with a reading knowledge of English vocabulary which is equivalent to that of an intermediate student, was pointed out. Such discrepancies in skills were traced back to the years where the learners were elementary and high school students. In the 1930's and 40's second language teaching was done through the grammar-translation method and the learning

of vocabulary was accomplished using lists of words for which students were given, or had to find, the equivalent in their first language. Although this approach did not train learners in oral productive or receptive skills, it nevertheless enabled speakers of French to recognize an impressive number of English words. In addition to English as a second language, the teaching of most subjects in the curriculum was also accomplished making extensive use of long-term memory on the part of the learners. Many adult students tell stories of having to learn the Sunday gospel by heart. Teaching and learning also meant the memorization of rules and examples. It is therefore not surprising to observe certain preferences exhibited by adult learners for techniques which duplicate the ones that prevailed in those days. Ignoring or rejecting those preferences on the basis of their being obsolete or out of date, or because they are forbidden in a given approach, will produce, in our opinion, negative results. We believe it is important to respect the past experience of learners as learners. For the course considered here, this means that even though translation and the memorization of vocabulary lists will not be used as such, these will not be forbidden. On the contrary, some activities will constitute the opportunity for learners to make up lists or to verify their knowledge or comprehension by using devices they prefer.

For the same reasons, the teachers shall be encouraged to give grammatical explanations to the learners if these are required. The object is to learn English by whatever means the learners use.

As has been shown by Candlin (Note 3) the type of abilities used by learners -- to decode a text in a foreign language for instance -- may vary greatly from one learner to the next. Therefore the role of the syllabus designer is to offer activities which are not monolithic in the types of

processes they call for in order to cater to the different learning styles of the learners. In practice, in the course, this objective will be reached by offering different ways of attaining the same goal with respect to different components of the course.

The learners' experience as part-time residents in Florida will constitute an actual component of the course. Each unit will provide specific occasions for the learners to bring to the course parts of their experience in Florida. This will be done in such aspects as providing factual information concerning Florida, their living situation there, their way of getting there, and so on. Whenever appropriate the teaching and practice of communicative language functions in class will find its final step in the learners' use of the functions in situations they have defined themselves according to the knowledge and experience they have of the target language setting. The course will also try to answer learners' needs with respect to their experience in Florida by asking them from time to time to recall specific occasions when they experienced difficulties due to their limited communicative ability. The syllabus designer's concern with respect to this area of the learner's experience of Florida and of their experience of life in general can be summarized in the following question: "How am I going to make use of their experience?"

The general life experience of learners shall be put to use by using techniques similar to the ones described above and by trying to have them relate constantly what they are learning to events which happened to them in the past or which may occur daily. This constant concern with relating the content of the course to their own lives should contribute to have the course perceived as immediately relevant.

The preceding considerations are implied in the following general principle:

# 21	LEARNERS COME TO LEARNING WITH EXPECTATIONS AND EXPERIENCE. BOTH MUST BE RESPECTED. ACTIVE USE OF LEARNERS' EXPERIENCE SHOULD BE A CONSTANT CONCERN IN THE COURSE.

The last set of criteria we would like to consider has to do with evaluation. For the purposes of the course designed here, evaluation shall be strictly formative. The object of evaluation will be to provide the learners, and the teacher, with information concerning their own progress in the language. As implied in Scriven's (1967) distinction between formative and summative evaluation, evaluation shall be carried out on a regular basis throughout the course and not solely at the end of the teaching/learning process. To use Lewy's (1977) terminology, we shall focus mainly on the tryout and quality control facets of the developmental stage of the program: phases in which the adequacy of the course materials is verified by the collection of evidence through observation, teacher and learners' judgements and discussions, and student products.

Learners will be evaluated in their ability to communicate in the target language. More precisely, evaluation tasks will be constructed to verify the learners' degree of ability to engage in receptive and productive activities which call for the use of the language functions and lexical items covered in the course.

For each major constituent of the course some form of evaluation or verification could be done to verify if the learners can 1) understand a message, in the target language, which uses the function or structure stressed at that point, 2) reproduce or duplicate the use of a specific component of the course, 3) make personal communicative use of the item.

Aside from short tests or quizzes which may be devised to ensure that learners have indeed learned specific lexical items, evaluation will be

carried out using communicative tasks similar to the ones employed to teach the content of the course. These tasks will usually call for the use at least two of the traditional four skills (reading, writing, speaking, listening), since skills will rarely be taught or learned in isolation.

The view of errors we adopt was described in Chapter two of the thesis. Although they can't in practice be strictly divided, fluency shall be stressed first, before accuracy. The reasons for this choice are twofold: firstly, the specific purpose involved in the course is one of communication. And communication does in fact take place even with the use of incorrect forms on the part of speakers. Secondly, experience and research have shown that teaching and learning done using methods which aim at error-free performance from the outset may well not be productive both for fluency and accuracy in the speech of learners.

Lightbown and Malcolm (1980) who investigated the relative accuracy of grammatical morphemes in the oral English of French-speaking students come to the conclusion that teaching grammatical structures in a linear sequence requiring morpheme perfect performance produces rather limited results. We agree with the authors' conclusion concerning this type of teaching and quote them here since their statement summarizes the rationale for our choice of another approach to foreign language teaching and learning, even though they are referring to younger learners:

> The goal of grammatical accuracy in the speech of learners whose total exposure to the language is, at best, less than 175 hours per year is clearly unealistic. What is worse, however, is that the interests and abilities of the young learners are being ignored or frustrated. For example, the constant re-use of a very limited vocabulary, for purposes of practicing grammatical structures whose functions the learners do not really understand, must leave them with the impression that they are doing the same thing over and over again (p. 62).

Since language must be experienced constantly in order to be internalized, - a progressive process - errors are thus an inevitable and normal part of language learning.

In the concept of the course, errors interfering seriously with the communication of meaning will be considered first. The performance levels aimed at will vary with the recurring appearance of the items in the course. The constant reappearance of forms of request throughout the course - to use an example - should result in a more accurate use of the form towards the end of the course.

#22 ERRORS ARE CONSIDERED AS AN INEVITABLE PART OF LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT. THE TEACHER'S CORRECTIONS WILL FIRST BE DIRECTED TOWARDS ERRORS WHICH INTERFERE WITH COMMUNICATION.

The last principle to be presented in the set of guidelines supporting the course is one that we consider essential and which is, in fact, a requisite to all the principles mentioned so far; since teacher behaviour plays a predominant role in language learning:

#23 THE TEACHER(S) WHO INTEND TO USE THIS ESP COURSE SHALL NOT ENGAGE IN TEACHING BEFORE HAVING SHOWN THEORETICAL AND PRACTICAL COMPREHENSION OF THE PRINCIPLES UNDERLYING THE INTERACTIONS FOUND AT THE HEART OF THE COURSE

In our opinion, the successful implementation of a course or set of materials, depends greatly on the teacher's personal comprehension, acceptance and integration of the principles which support the course. Since the present course integrates elements which constitute an attempt at making learners more independent, we believe the actual teacher training stage, which should necessarily accompany any major changes in a curriculum, is even more required here.

It must be pointed out that whereas in-service teacher training can represent a formidable task in the field of general education, when a new

approach is introduced in a curriculum, the limited applicability of the course designed here and its status as an individual course to be offered outside the provincial curriculum greatly facilitate the meeting of this requirement.

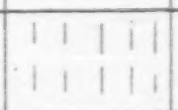
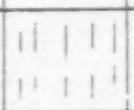
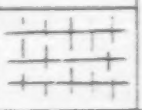
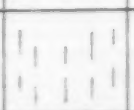
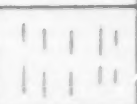
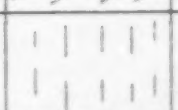
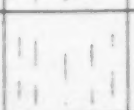
The principles stated in this chapter have been arrived at by trying to incorporate in the conception of a course factors which we consider influential for language learning and which originate from the three cornerstones of method discussed in Chapter Two; i.e., linguistics, psychology and education. The objective was to conceive a course based on a global perspective of language learning. It is by endeavouring to maintain the focus of attention on the learners that we proposed to be coherent in the approach we designed. Some concrete results of this specific concern for the learners can be observed in the principles listed in this chapter. Principles related to the teaching of the communicative use of language are derived from the specific purpose we believe to be the object of language learning on the part of the population. Principles advocating the use of certain techniques for teaching and learning are products of postulates we have put forward concerning language learning as applied to this specific population. This is how ideas such as "competence of transfer" were obtained. Finally, principles related to teacher behaviour and to evaluation were stated that show the designer's concern with educational decisions pertinent to this specific instance of syllabus design.

In an informal address at Concordia University, Montreal, in October 1981, David Stern (Note 4) presented a foreign language curriculum model which attempts to incorporate all the dimensions involved in foreign language teaching and learning. Although the model is primarily intended for general education curriculi and not for specific purpose course design, we have chosen to present it in conclusion to the chapter because of the

global approach it casts on language learning - an approach which we favoured in this thesis. Stern sees a foreign language curriculum as being composed of four distinct syllabuses, namely a language syllabus (L2), a culture syllabus (C2), a communicative activity syllabus (L2/C2) and a general language education syllabus. Four categories of objectives may receive major or minor emphasis with respect to each syllabus. These are objectives of proficiency, knowledge, affect and transfer. Finally Stern states the main strategies that should be stressed in each syllabus to reach the chosen objectives. Figure 2 is the duplication of the model supplied by Stern. However, we have chosen to modify it to fit the situation considered here by putting a major emphasis on the objective of transfer for the language syllabus (indicated by horizontal lines in the model).

Figure 2

A FOREIGN LANGUAGE CURRICULUM MODEL (D. Stern, 1981)

CONTENT	OBJECTIVES				MAIN STRATEGIES
	Proficiency	Knowledge	Affect	Transfer	
Language Syllabus (L2)					Analytical: Study & practice
Culture Syllabus (C2)					Analytical: Study (knowledge about C2)
Communicative Activity Syllabus (L2/C2)					Communicative Activities (Experiential)
General Language Education Syllabus					Comparative (Crosslingual/ Crosscultural)

NOTE: Diagonal lines indicate suggested major emphasis.
Vertical lines indicate suggested minor emphasis.
The horizontal lines show the major emphasis we have chosen to give transfer for the course designed here.

In the course designed in this thesis the language syllabus is made up mainly of speech acts or functions for which linguistic structures are used. The culture syllabus is related to the community speaking the target language, i.e., North Americans living in Florida. The communicative activity syllabus is incorporated in the curriculum right from the beginning, - and not postponed until later stages - to make the learner a participant in real communication. Finally, the general language education syllabus, which for Stern is a way of relating the foreign language to other subjects studied by learners in a setting of general education, would refer here to the aspects of general life experience of learners we mentioned earlier in this chapter.

The model illustrates an approach to foreign language teaching and learning which differs from single concept teaching. We believe it has merit because it does not treat language as a "drill and skill" subject, but rather as a complex entity.

It is because language is a human phenomenon that language teaching syllabuses must take into account all the areas of variables which may influence language learning. This should not only make language easier to learn, it should also help to preserve the genuine identity and function of language in the context of a course.

CHAPTER FOUR

In the previous chapter we presented 23 principles which will serve as guidelines for the design of a set of materials for the course. As was formulated earlier, these represent the "best guesses" we made based on research, experience and common sense. Although a certain amount about teaching and learning a second/foreign language is known, much is not known. Instead of capitulating in the face of the unknown, the syllabus designer has to make personal choices. The principles enumerated in chapter three constitute our choices.

The present chapter aims at translating the principles stated in Chapter Three into an actual course. The objective is not to list each individual item to be covered in the course, but rather to provide a description sufficiently specific to be operational.

We will first consider various technical aspects surrounding any course, namely: 1) the duration of the course and frequency of meetings, 2) class size, 3) the physical setting, and 4) the didactic material and equipment. These aspects will be considered to accomodate the "specifics" imposed on the course by different factors. In the second section of the chapter the teaching/learning activities taking place in class and those accomplished by the students as homework will be enumerated. Four of these

activities will be described in detail in chapter five. Finally, the chapter will conclude with specifications concerning principles 3 and 18 which relate to the language content of the course and to the introduction of a set of characters to link the course units.

TECHNICAL ASPECTS

Duration of the Course and Frequency of Meetings

According to Richard's (1979) survey referred to in chapter one, the great majority of ESL courses offered to the general public in the Quebec City region are 45 hours long. This enables courses to be given within the limits of a term and also to meet the regular requirements of certification imposed by the Ministry of Education in the secondary school and Cegep systems and by universities.

To respect criteria of applicability in the real world we mentioned in the precious chapter, it is important to situate the course as one of the many alternatives the general public is offered at the beginning of the school year. The course designed here will be similar to other second language courses in many ways. It will call for registration and payment of tuition fees on the part of students. Learners will also be interviewed for purposes of placement. Individuals who already possess basic communicative skills in English will be directed toward other courses, which could also have been designed along ESP lines.

However, the course will be different from other courses in that it will involve 36 contact hours. The reason for a reduced number of hours comes from 1) the number of hours learners will spend doing self-teaching

activities at home, 2) the specific and intensive nature of the training, and 3) the early date of departure for Florida for many of the learners.

Optimally, the course should be taken as intensive language training to precede the learner's annual sojourn in Florida. It is our opinion that learners will appreciate the intensive character given to the course since it should favour a more profound involvement on their part. Offered in an area where a trained teacher is available, the course could be offered in two forms: 1) as nine-week course with two-hour sessions twice a week, or 2) as a six-week course with meetings stretched over five two-day periods (e.g. five Friday afternoons and Saturday mornings). Offered in an area where a trained teacher is not available locally, the course would most likely be offered in its second version only, since it reduces travel requirements and expenses.

We believe that 36 contact hours will be sufficient to train the learners to use the limited number of language functions covered in the course (see principles 2 and 3). However, we also believe that this aim could not be achieved if the learners' listening ability was not trained out of class, thus reducing the courseload to be covered during contact hours (see principle 8). More specification concerning the language functions to be covered and student homework will be given later in this chapter.

Whatever form the course is offered in, we do not think any meeting should be much longer than 2½ hours. It is difficult to maintain the attention of learners, or for learners to be attentive, for long periods of time when their L2 skills are very limited. However, the use of different activities for each meeting as well as the possible uses of the learners'

mother tongue in class should make 2½ hour sessions feasible.

Class Size

Considerations of a financial nature can be observed throughout the world of education. However, it is in specific areas such as class size that the limitations imposed by financial concerns on education can most be felt by teachers and learners. For subjects such as English as a second/foreign language, the number of students in a group is an important variable for learning since the development of communicative skills depends on the possibility for the learners to use the language they are learning while they are engaged in learning activities. Like other courses, the course designed here cannot escape financial requirements.

We consider that 16 students per class is a number which can adequately satisfy the demands imposed on the course both by pedagogical and financial factors. 16 students per group allows for interesting classroom interaction - if one thinks of the worth of the experience learners can bring to the course - and for a high potential of active involvement for the 16 learners, by making use of pair and group work. Furthermore, 16 students per class should constitute an adequate figure for the financing of a course, keeping tuition fees at a reasonable level.

Physical Setting

Much attention has been paid lately to "environmental factors" which surround L2 courses. In fact, certain methods of L2 teaching and learning place environmental factors at the center of their considerations (e.g.

Lozanov's Suggestopedia). Others incorporate directions relating to specific aspects of the teaching/learning environment such as the seating arrangement for teachers and students (American English by the Audio-Visual Method, teacher's Guide, Girard, L. and D. Lambert-Ouellet, Didier, 1974, p. 12).

We think that this course could be offered in schools and community centres i.e. in rooms which have not been designed especially for communicative language teaching-learning. Therefore our recommendations will be kept simple. The physical environment should allow for the use of audio-visual equipment, for pair and group work, as well as for writing on the part of teacher and students. Since the teacher will also participate in activities to be done by the learners in class, the presence of a teacher's desk in a room does not imply that that is where the teacher should remain during the class.

On the contrary, participating behaviour shall be encouraged on the part of teachers as well as the use of pedagogical techniques preventing the development of "routine" in the course. This can be achieved by showing teachers how to vary the presentation of activities which in fact have the same purpose. The answer often lies in a greater involvement of learners as participants in the teaching of a course.

Trying to make the best use of what is available, the concern here will be to create an atmosphere of intimacy and participation in the classroom by modifying rigid arrangements which may prevail in the room assigned for the course. In certain institutions the use of the conference room or of a small lounge, instead of traditional classrooms, would better suit the nature of the course.

Didactic Material and Equipment

The students' material would consist of 1) a document in which the content of the course would be presented, including most of the activities to be done in class, 2) a workbook to accompany 3) the two c-90 cassettes on which would be recorded the materials for activities focusing mainly on listening skills. The students would also be required to purchase a pocket-size bilingual dictionary such as Collins French-English English-French Dictionary (Toronto, 1980. 50,000 entries) as well as a copy of an English magazine which reflects one of the learner's main interests. The students' use of the dictionary would be systematically encouraged throughout the course and two exercises dealing with bilingual dictionary use would be provided in the course. The first exercise would be done in class and the second one as an assignment to be done at home. The magazine would be used for two vocabulary building and reading comprehension exercices.

Supplementary materials could also be recommended to students who want to have other tools at their disposal to further language learning on their own. These would include a unilingual English pocket dictionary such as The Random House Dictionary (New York, Ballantine Books, 1978. 70,000 entries, 1070 pages) and a subscription to a magazine which uses simplified language without reducing the interest of the content. National Geographic's World is a good example of such publications.

Aside from the printed material described above, the students will need to have the use of a cassette player at home to complete listening and pronunciation activities recorded on the two cassettes for the course. We

do not think this constitutes an unrealistic demand on learners. Experience has shown that most adult learners have access to a cassette player in their own home.

The teacher's material would consist of the same documents as the students' with a teacher's guide which would be supplied at the time of teacher training. The teacher would also be encouraged to subscribe to publications like the one we mentioned earlier and to look for other magazines exhibiting similar qualities. Since these publications are often unavailable in stores, the teacher could lend his/her own copies to the students.

In addition to these documents, the teachers will use a series of slides showing Floridian settings and environments typical of the places French-Canadians stop driving on their way to and from Florida. The rationale for the use of slides is not only to provide a "real world background" to teaching/learning activities but also to create starting points from which communicative tasks can proceed. Whenever possible live recordings of actual exchanges between participants in typical situations of communication illustrated by the slides will be provided. In the absence of such authentic material, typical exchanges will be duplicated in dramatized recordings.

The audio-visual material will be obtained during the author's next visit to Florida using professional equipment and applying technical knowledge acquired in specific training in the conception of audio-visual materials for teaching purposes, and using experience developed in the course of summer contracts as a photographer for the Quebec Catholic School Board.

The equipment needed to teach the course would consist of 1) a blackboard, 2) a projection screen, 3) a slide projector equipped with a remote contro unit, 4) a cassette player and 5)a 16mm projector, which could be borrowed or rented, for the showing, on one occasion around the 25th hour of the course, of a six-minute animated film to be used as a platform for the expression of personal opinions on the part of students.

TEACHING/LEARNING ACTIVITIES IN CLASS AND AT HOME

It is our goal to make the 36 contact hours as productive as possible for the development of communicative skills in English. We think that for this course productivity should derive from the alignment of the aspects chosen to receive major emphasis during classes.

Class time will first be devoted to the actual practice of communicative functions by the learners. This will be done most frequently by using a procedure which first presents the learners with an audio-visual rendition of a situation of communication which focuses on one, two or three major communicative functions. A comprehension/explanation phase would follow, or could even precede, this first step. This phase, which could be carried out in French, aims at making the learners aware of the communicative aspect of the exchange receiving attention. This would be followed by exercises of duplication of the original exchange ranging from the repetition of individual segments to the enacting of the situation first presented. Then, activities designed to gradually have the learners appropriate these means of communication to themselves would follow. These would require the learners to use the language items covered in the course for their own purposes. Therefore, the procedure follows a progression from the duplication of a model to the personal communicative use of items of language.

Although this is the general approach to be followed, it must be pointed out that variations will be introduced. These could, for instance, require the students to engage in communicative interaction before having been introduced to the functions and lexical items in the way described above. Such techniques would prevent the establishment of fixed routines of classroom procedures and would constitute actual means of having learners (and teacher) realize if the required elements are available to the learners. The communicative-function constituent of the course referred to so far will be accompanied by a topic-related lexical constituent which would develop progressively as different topics and settings surface which are at the source of, and which contextualize, the interactions.

Another aspect to receive emphasis in the course relates to the transfer of the French communicative skills of the learners to their competence in English. Best pictured as being parallel to the two constituents already mentioned, this aspect of the course aims at having learners use skills they already possess in their L1 to achieve better communication in the target language. Not only is the design of many French speech acts similar to the English counterpart, but many of the means used by our learners to manage verbal interaction in French could also be used to help them complete an actual exchange in the L2 which could otherwise be unsuccessful. Thus, even if communication in French and English is carried out using different codes, the actual structure of what could be called "socio-verbal interaction" is relatively the same. Accordingly, it is important that learners be given the tools they may need to have some control over the communication they are engaged in, even if their competence in English is minimal. For instance, by examining examples of

situations in which communication is unsuccessful, and by having learners provide suggestions as to how the non-fluent speaker of English pictured in the situation could make the native speaker realize that the message is not understood, knowledge and experience can be gained which may later serve the learners when they interact with English-speaking people in Florida. It is not unreasonable to assume that the learners would be more efficient communicators if they knew how to tell a person to speak more slowly or to spell a street name, to use two examples.

Finally, aside from the time needed in any teaching/learning situation for the discussion of problems encountered by students in class or at home working on assignments, class time will also be devoted to the explanation and practice of the grammatical structures realizing the functions studied in the course. This type of explanation and practice is seen as a way of 1) answering actual student questions relating to grammar, 2) helping learners understand the rules governing the formation of specific structures, often with high generative power, such as questions using the "do" auxiliary, and 3) providing learners with a basic grammatical metalanguage which they may already have been exposed to in earlier training or which they may benefit from if they take other courses or study on their own using traditional texts.

At Home

Contrary to most courses offered to the general public in the area of adult education, the course designed here will require a fair amount of work to be done at home by the students. This is necessary if the course is to be more than just a limited introduction to communicative skills in

English rather than actual training to understand and use the language. By doing regular work at home, preferably in two weekly sessions between meetings, learners will contribute to their own language development to a greater extent than is usually the case for adult courses. This approach should gain the acceptance of learners because it is coherent with the aspect of intensive training implied in the course - an aspect which we consider necessary for language development by learners at this level - and because such a demand can be answered by the motivation which will have incited them to engage in a language learning course. Moreover, the work the learners will do at home, at their own pace, in their own way, will contribute to the achievement of the objective of training learners to learn the L2, stated in principle 20.

To conform to the requirements of principle 15, homework and assignments will be explained to learners in a way which justifies the completion of the work by showing them how the activities contribute to developing the skills they need to communicate in English.

The work to be done at home by the students will consist mostly of exercises which aim at 1) developing oral receptive skills, 2) training students to approximate native pronunciation of North-American English (sounds and intonation), 3) providing additional opportunities for learners to use the language functions and lexical items emphasized in the course, 4) developing the English lexical repertoire of students, and 5) showing learners how to approach the reading of authentic documents written in English.

In the student's workbook designed and illustrated to accompany the course, the purpose of each activity will be stated in French below the heading identifying the activity. The purpose will be formulated to show the way(s) in which the activity contributes to the attainment of the objectives identified for each unit. When the exercise needs to be explained, the directions will be given in French. When the task is familiar to the students, simple command-type directions will be given in English. The workbook shall also contain French summaries of the principal points relating to language usage and language use covered in the course.

Table 2 summarizes in schematic form, the different aspects of language teaching and learning which shall receive attention during contact hours and in the student's work to be done at home. The table lists the types of exercices which have been envisaged for each of the aspects to be covered in the course and is provided here to facilitate a global vision of the type of work to be found in the course. The list is strictly tentative. It will undoubtedly need to be modified following the tryout of the course. Four of the activities listed in table 2 will be elaborated in further detail in Chapter Five.

Table 2

Activities for classroom interaction and home study

IN CLASS

Communicative functions

Duplication of a model:

- repetition (group and individual)
- enacting of roles (pairs or groups)

Variations on a model:

- transformation of model according to the changes first brought by the teacher, then by the students;
- different topics, settings;
- change of elements influencing grammatical categories.

Practise of functions in communicative activities:

- problem-solving activities;
- use of different visual aids provided in the text ;
- use of materials provided by the students;
- practice in the use of the telephone (with a tele-trainer).

Transfer of communicative skills

Reflection on communication:

- initiated by discussions, in French, with students:
  - by audio, visual, or audio-visual material showing unsuccessful communication;
  - by actual instances of problems of communication occurring during course activities.

Provision and practice of possible solutions:

- found in the learner's experience of communication in French;
- transferred into English;
- with the help of student suggestions, audio-visual illustrations, or teacher's suggestions.

Grammatical structures

Answering student questions relating to grammar:

- by providing additional examples in English;
- by asking for student opinions on the rules governing the structure, in French;
- by having the learner refer to pertinent information provided in the text;
- by answering the question and giving explanations, in French.

Helping learners understand formation rules:

- by providing opportunities to practice the structures.

Providing learners with a basic grammatical metalanguage:

- this should come as a result of the consideration of the two preceding points.

AT HOME (using the cassettes and workbook)

Oral receptive skills

Training for comprehension of specific verbal interaction particular to identified settings:

- physical response to recorded messages (variety of accents, registers, and rates of delivery);
- transcription of oral information;
- French summary, in schematic form, of an oral message in English;
- delayed repetition of an oral message;
- identification, in French, of information, moods, and opinions, found in the recording of authentic exchanges between speakers of English;
- checking of multiple-choice answers, written in French or in English, to questions related to a message or exchange recorded on tape;
- providing French answers to questions asked following the playing of a weather forecast, a news report, or of other such authentic recordings.

Training for general comprehension:

- lecturette technique;
- transcription of recorded exchanges;
- songs with blanks to fill in;
- possible use of some educational material designed around topics dealing with nature and resources (weather, energy, etc.) by the National Geographic Society.

Pronunciation:

- repetition (for sounds, stress and intonation);
- recording, by the student, of a short passage read in English, and recording of brief exchanges between two students. This would be corrected by the teacher for formative evaluation.

Functions and structures:

- playing parts in incomplete recorded exchanges;
- reacting in English to situations described to the learners in French, on tape (e.g. ... il parle trop vite. Que dites-vous ?);
- meaningful contextualized drills for the practice of structures (used to ask questions, express negation, make requests...).

Lexical repertoire:

- identifying cognates;
- making up a personal "dictionary";
- use of pictures, found in the workbook and supplied by the students, in which things, places and people must be identified;
- practicing the use of lexical items introduced in the course material;
- exercises of word derivation;
- encouraging student participation in the development of a "word bank" for the course by having them enumerate words they consider essential in certain settings (brain storming; could be done in French and in English).

Reading skills:

- different exercises on short texts which would show learners various ways in which the decoding of a text may be approached: identify cognates, main ideas, key words, unknown words; make guesses concerning the meaning of a passage; limiting the use of the dictionary.

PRINCIPLES 3 AND 13

Principle 3

Principle 3 states that the selection and grading of language items in the course will be based on the potential value of language items, and that the course will focus primarily on those items which have the highest potential value. The principle is further specified by principle 9 which

states that general characteristics of language such as statements, questions and requests shall constitute the linguistic focus of the course. Principles 4 and 5 show the way in which the language content of the course will be presented to the learner i.e. by using a metalanguage which emphasizes the functions which language fulfills. The following list shows in a general way, which language functions and general characteristics of language will be covered in the course. It is in the contextualization of these items and in the types of interaction favoured to have learners practice the language presented to them that these general language functions will acquire an identity related to the specific purposes identified for the course.

The sequencing of the language content of the course will generally follow a progression from what could be considered the minimal utterance to realize a function (e.g. "milk", for a request) to a basic repertoire of structures which would enable learners to communicate using a register complying with the general requirements for polite address. As shown by table 1 (p. 12), the majority of settings calling for the use of English on the part of the French-Canadian population are settings which usually ask for the use of polite forms, since they involve verbal interaction between strangers. The sequencing of the language syllabus would be cyclical, constantly reviewing the basic functions and expanding their forms of realization.

At the final stage of the course the learners should be able to demonstrate ability to engage in verbal interaction (receptive and productive) in English in situations calling for the use of the following functions:

ASKING the time, distance, for an opinion, identity, location, for directions, for information,spelling, reason, preferences, for clarification, repetition;

REQUESTING money exchange, food; information concerning rates, prices, schedules, and services offered;

REPLYING (giving information, acknowledging, agreeing, disagreeing, reacting,confirming) to a request, a suggestion, an invitation, an offer, and accepting an apology;

STATING (describing) facts, opinion, plans, time, wishes, preferences;

SUGGESTING place, food, activity;

IDENTIFYING things, people, places, ownership;

INTRODUCING people to people, a topic (to initiate conversation);

INVITING people to a place, (offering) food, things, help;

and other functions which play important roles in the sustenance of discourse such as: exclaiming, checking, expressing one's inability to understand, and taking leave.

If a more traditional grammatical description of the content of the course were given, rather than one listing functional or interactional categories, the following broad inventory would be obtained:

QUESTIONS (yes or no type and information questions using question words) using "be" and "do";

STATEMENTS expressing answers, agreement or disagreement, opinions, as well as describing places and people;

REQUESTS using basic polite forms (could I have...?, could you show me...?).

As for verbs tenses, the objective of the course is to reach a level where learners can differentiate between forms of verb endings and can start monitoring their use of third person singular marker in the present tense. For receptive skills, learners should start recognizing the past, present or future aspect of an utterance. For productive use, learners are expected to indicate if they are referring to the past, present or future by using such words or expressions as "yesterday" or "next week" preceding or following a message conveyed in the present tense. If possible, the basic frequency adverbs "always", "never", "sometimes", and "often" will be introduced.

Principle 18

Principle 18 is concerned with the introduction of an storyline featuring characters who will experience various situations. These characters would be introduced in Unit One of the course and would first consist of a married couple in their early sixties. The couple would be shown preparing for their second annual two-month stay in Hollywood Beach, Florida, in a condominium they rent from a French-Canadian friend. The couple would come from St-Appolinaire, a municipality 14 miles north-west of Quebec City. They would be in a phase of early retirement, the activities of their dairy farm being taken over by their recently-married son. Husband and wife would be very close, forming a strong couple, but both would be strong-minded and opinionated.

Other characters would be introduced such as another couple, slightly younger, residing in Montreal. For the first time this year they would share their mobile home situated in Miami with the lady's sister who is from Chambord, Lac St-Jean. The five characters would meet at a jai alai game and become friends. The couple from St-Appolinaire would know only a few words of English and would sometimes be shown trying unsuccessfully to achieve communication. The couple from Montreal would be rather fluent in English. The widowed sister would possess basic communicative skills in English. These different levels of fluency on the part of the French-Canadian characters would allow us to use both French-Canadians and native speakers of English as sources of authentic fully developed discourse. The sister from Chambord would serve as an example to show that communication is feasible with a limited command of the language, and as the character who uses English at a level of fluency slightly higher than the level aimed at as the objective for the course.

English-speaking neighbours from Canada and the U.S. would be introduced as well as other characters depicting people French-Canadians interact with in their daily activities in Florida.

A visit by a daughter with her "grandparents'grandson" would take place and a car would be rented for a two-day visit to Disneyworld. Letters to and from loved ones in Quebec would be written and phone calls would be made. A link with the Quebec reality will be kept throughout the course since we believe learners will profit from exercises which will require that they describe "their" Quebec to the English-speaking people they meet. Needless to say that the topic of winter in Quebec will be included.

The storyline would follow the usual phases of getting ready to leave for Florida (by car and by plane) of first arriving in the "new" environment, and finally of living daily lives punctuated by typical events.

Pedagogically, the use of clearly defined characters in the set of materials is seen as a way of 1) linking units, 2) introducing and justifying course content, 3) directing the learner's attention to the source and to the intention of communication, 4) showing language in use, 5) providing recognizable, sympathetic and possibly self-resembling characters to whom the learner can relate, 6) facilitating the contribution of learners to the course by putting characters in situations which may remind them of personal experiences they have themselves had and which could be used as variations for additional settings to contextualize communication activities, 7) simplifying the task of directing the learner's attention to the kind of performance we would like to initiate in a particular activity assigned as homework, and 8) limiting the work and expense of supplying photographic, illustrated, and recorded support to be included in the course materials.

CHAPTER FIVE

In this chapter, samples of four teaching/learning activities are presented. They illustrate some of the types of classroom interaction foreseen for the course and activities for home-study.

Activity 1 is the enacting by students of the audio-visual situation "C & C Steaks" Part one. Activity 2 consists in a general analysis of "C & C Steaks", to be done in French by the teacher and students, which aims at having students identify the functions covered in the exchange. Activity 3, "The Dominican Republic", is based on the lecturette technique (Newton, 1974). It integrates the four skills and would normally be used for purposes of developing general oral comprehension skills. However, it will be presented here as an activity which aims at having learners realize that English and French share cognates. Finally, activity 4 shows one way in which the training for comprehension of specific types of verbal interaction can be accomplished.

ACTIVITY 1: C & C STEAKS

Paul and Thérèse, our couple from St-Appolinaire, are at C & C Steaks with Raymond, Jeanette and Marguerite. Paul and Thérèse speak very little English. Marguerite can make herself understood rather easily now. Raymond and Jeanette speak English fluently.

The sound of different conversations, in French and in English, can be heard in the background as the P.A. system announces...

Slides (Colour drawings)		Sound track
Crowded entrance of C & C Steaks	(A woman's voice) . . . . . :	"Côté, party of five".
	Thérèse . . . . . :	"Qu'est-ce qu'elle a dit ?"
	Jeannette . . . . . :	"Party of five. Ca veut dire: groupe de cinq".
	Thérèse . . . . . :	"C'est comique ça, un party".
Paul with Thérèse Waitress	Waitress (mid-twenties, smiling) . . . :	"Good evening". "Follow me, please".
	Paul to Thérèse . . . . . :	"Y'en a des blondes en Floride".
Waitress Paul & Thérèse Raymond with Jeannette & Margerite (at a round table)	Waitress . . . . . :	"Would you like a drink before you order ?"
	Thérèse à Paul . . . . . :	"... un appéritif".
	Jeannette . . . . . :	"What's the C & C Special ?"
	Waitress . . . . . :	"It's rum, grenadine, lemonade,on ice, with lime".
Raymond Jeannette & Marguerite Paul & Thérèse	Raymond to Jeannette and Marguerite . . . . . :	"Ca vous intéresse ?"
	Jeannette . . . . . :	"Oui".
	Marguerite . . . . . :	"Oui, ça a l'air bon".
	Raymond . . . . . :	"All right. We'll have two C & Cs and one Budweiser, please".

Paul & Thérèse Waitress	Paul to Thérèse . . . . . :	"Toi ?"
	Thérèse to Paul . . . . . :	"J'vais commander".
	to Waitress . . . . . :	"One C & C please".
Waitress	Waitress to Paul . . . . . :	"And for you, sir ?"
Paul	Paul . . . . . :	"Aaa... No C & C ...aaa "Beer please... Budweiser".
	Waitress . . . . . :	"Yes, sir". "Here's our menu. I'll be back in a minute".
Paul to friends	Paul (joking) to friends . . :	"I am nervous, in English".

Steps:
1. Teacher introduces the activity;
2. Audio-visual situation played twice;
3. Group repetition of English utterances during short pauses in two or three additional presentations of the situation; teacher explains the meaning of utterances which are not totally understood by repeating them slowly. The teacher should be able to clarify the meaning without referring to French;
4. Staying where they are, students form groups and try to duplicate the situation by following the slides only;
5. Then, without any audio-visual support, groups go through the complete sequence two or three times as teacher goes around class;
6. If the number of students allows the teacher to play a part in a group, s/he should do so.

ACTIVITY 2: IDENTIFYING COMMUNICATIVE FUNCTIONS

"C & C Steaks" Part One introduces two functions: offering and requesting (or asking for something). Offering is realized by "Would you like a drink ?" and requesting by three different forms: "We'll have two C & Cs...", "One C & C please" and "Budweiser".

In our opinion, it may prove useful, before going on to Part Two, to have the class identify the point of focus in the situation they enacted. By asking questions, the teacher can direct the students' attention to the setting (restaurant), the person who addresses the characters in English (waitress), and the nature of the usual exchanges between a waitress and customers (asking, offering, requesting). Students then could be asked to recall how offering and requesting were realized in the situation.

This reflection phase would require only two or three minutes of class time and would ensure a better comprehension of the purpose of the activities. It could sometimes precede the presentation of the audio-visual situations designed to introduce specific functions or could even be skipped if the students' comprehension was obvious.

Part Two of C & C Steaks would show the waitress serving six English speaking customers at the table next to Paul's. It would introduce other forms of realizations of the same functions, such as "What would you like to...?", "Do you want...?" and "I'd like a...".

ACTIVITY 3: THE DOMINICAN REPUBLIC

"The Dominican Republic" is based on the "lecturette" technique described by Newton (1974). The lecturettes are written in two forms, full and simplified. For our purpose "full" refers to prose which can be considered somewhat difficult to understand for the learners, and "simplified" means a paraphrase written in easier form with a limited vocabulary. Each of these lecturettes (4) is recorded on tape in two forms: deliberate and regular. "Regular" is the normal speed for a public lecture. "Deliberate" is a slower delivery. This makes a series of four variations:

a) simplified deliberate;
b) simplified regular;
c) full deliberate;
d) full regular.

The students are given copies of the four versions and are asked to fill in the blank spaces as they listen to the recording of the first version of the text without interruption. Once a version is finished, the student has to answer the test accompanying that particular version. The students follow the same procedure for the next versions. Self-correction of the tests is required, using the answer sheet which is provided with the activity. Variations can be introduced which may require correction of the tests after each version or which may allow the students to stop the recording when they encounter problems.

Aside from training oral receptive skills, lecturettes can be used to introduce new vocabulary, to provide cultural information related to the

setting of the use of the L2, or can serve as reading material.

In the next section, "The Dominican Republic" is reproduced in its complete form. However, since the relevance of the activity for the training of receptive skills can be easily observed, we have decided to use the simplified version of the text to illustrate another important aspect of the course i.e., the use of cognates.

As was mentioned earlier in this thesis, we believe that the lexical repertoire of learners could expand faster if they were shown the extent to which French and English share, in fact, the same words. Furthermore, the use of a very simple activity such as the one described next should prove even more worthwhile for French-Canadians since their code has been infiltrated by so many English words. For example, if "C & C Steaks" were the object of analysis rather than "The Dominican Republic", students would most likely recognize the word "drink" in the waitress' utterance "Would you like a drink before you order?" as an example of a borrowing in French to replace "un verre".

Before the learners can be expected to make positive use of cognates (c.f. Principle 13), they must first realize they exist. This is the purpose of the next exercise.

IDENTIFYING COGNATES

Follow these steps:

1. Lisez la version simplifiée de "The Dominican Republic" et relevez tous les mots que vous reconnaissez parce qu'ils ressemblent à des mots du français;

2. faites une liste en une colonne des mots relevés;

3. à côté de chacun des mots relevés, inscrivez ce que serait l'équivalent français de ce mot, selon vous;

4. indiquez par un astérisque les mots français inscrits que vous utilisez assez régulièrement;

5. écoutez l'enregistrement de la version simplifiée lente en portant attention à la façon dont sont dits les mots qui correspondent aux mots français que vous avez marqués d'un astérisque;

6. prononcez en anglais ces mêmes mots et réécoutez l'enregistrement pour vérifier si vous les rendiez bien. Notez les mots plus difficiles et recommencez l'exercice (6).

REMARQUE:

On appelle "cognates" les mots qui se ressemblent en anglais et en français. La ressemblance est dûe au fait que l'anglais, à une période de l'histoire, a emprunté plusieurs mots qui provenaient du français et ces mots sont demeurés dans la langue. L'inverse se produit aujourd'hui quand en français on utilise "un drink" pour "un verre", ou "des flashers" pour "des (feux) clignotants".

Malheureusement, tous les mots de l'anglais ne sont pas des "cognates" et, de fait, les mots les plus couramment employés en anglais ne ressemblent pas aux mots français. Il faut donc les apprendre. Néanmoins, il est avantageux d'essayer de reconnaître ces "cognates" car la plupart du temps ils expriment ce que leurs équivalents expriment en français. On peut donc s'en servir lorsque l'on parle anglais et s'attendre à être compris par un anglophone, à condition qu'on donne aux mots leur prononciation anglaise.

This vulgarization of the concept of cognate would be incorporated in the student's workbook and would be discussed in class. If the use of cognates also involves the possibility of misusing faux-amis we think that it is at a higher level that this problem should receive more attention. Nevertheless, examples of common faux-amis would be given to the students to attract their attention, to illustrate the concept of cognate and to show the changes in semantic fields lexical items undergo through time.

THE DOMINICAN REPUBLIC

SIMPLIFIED DELIBERATE

The Dominican Republic is an island of the Caribbean. Haiti and the Dominican Republic are on the same island. The capital of the Dominican Republic is Santo Domingo. It is a big and modern city.

Dominicans speak Spanish. The principal religion is Catholicism. Tourism is not the most important industry there. Agriculture, mining and fishing are at the base of their economy.

The Dominican Republic has a democratic political system.

SIMPLIFIED REGULAR

The Dominican _____ is an island of the Caribbean. Haiti and _____ Dominican Republic are on the same island. The capital _____ the Dominican Republic is Santo Domingo. It is a _____ and modern city.

Dominicans speak Spanish. The principal religion _____ Catholicism. Tourism is not the most important industry there. _____ mining and fishing are at the base of their _____.

The Dominican Republic has a democratic _____ system.

FULL DELIBERATE

The Dominican Republic is a country in the West _____. If you look at a map you will see that _____ West Indies are just south of Florida. _____, Haiti, Jamaica, Trinidad, Barbados, Bahamas and many other _____ are also part of the West Indies.

The Dominican _____ is one of the largest countries there. The island _____ divided into two; Haiti to the west and the _____ Republic to the east. Like most islands, there, on _____ side you can swim in the Atlantic ocean and _____ the other side, in the Caribbean Sea.

The Dominican Republic _____ approximately five million people, two million living in Santo Domingo _____ capital of the country. Santo Domingo is a big _____ modern city with hotels, casinos, markets, discos, stores and lots _____ cars.

The Dominicans speak Spanish, the only official language. There _____ many religions on the Island but the main one _____ Catholicism. Many missionaires and priests on the island come _____ Québec.

Although the Dominican Republic has _____ same beautiful weather as the other Caribbean islands, it _____ not as well known by tourists. There are many _____ in Santo Domingo and in Puerto Plata but tourism _____ not a very big industry yet. It should become _____ important in the coming years.

The economy is based on _____ and mining. Dominicans grow sugar cane, coffee, cocoa, rice and coconut. Silver, gold, copper and marble are _____ found on the island. Although it is dependent on the United States the Dominican Republic is _____ stable economically than most islands in the West Indies.

_____ Haiti, the Dominican Republic is a democracy with an election every four _____.

The Dominican Republic was hit very badly by hurricane _____ in 1979.

FULL REGULAR

The Dominican Republic is a _____ in the West Indies. If you look at a _____ you will see that the West Indies are just _____ of Florida. Cuba, Haiti, Jamaica, Trinidad, Barbados, Bahamas and _____ other islands are also part of the West Indies.

_____ Dominican Republic is one of the largest countries there. _____ island is divided into two: Haiti to the west _____ the Dominican Republic to the east. Like most islands _____, on one side you can swim in the Atlantic _____ and on the other side, in the Caribbean Sea.

_____ Dominican Republic has approximately five million people, two million _____ in Santo Domingo, the capital of the country. Santo _____ is a big and modern city with hotels, casinos, _____, discos, stores and lots of cars.

The Dominicans speak _____, the only official language. There are many religions on _____ island but the main one is Catholicism. Many missionaries and _____ on the island come from Québec.

Although the _____ Republic has the same beautiful weather as the other Caribbean _____, it is not as well known by tourists. There _____ many tourists in Santo Domingo and in Puerto Plata _____ tourism is not a very big industry yet. It _____ become more important in the coming years.

The economy _____ based on agriculture and mining. Dominicans grow sugar cane, _____, cocoa, rice and coconut. Silver, gold, copper and marble _____ also found on the island. Although it is dependent _____ the United States, the Dominican Republic is more stable _____ than most islands in the West Indies.

Unlike Haiti, _____ Dominican republic is a democracy with an election every _____ years.

The Dominican Republic _____ hit very badly by hurricane David _____ 1979.

SIMPLIFIED VERSION A - TEST

1. Tourism is the principal industry. True False

2. Dominicans speak _____.

3. The Dominican Republic is a city. True False

SIMPLIFIED VERSION B - TEST

1. Haiti and the Dominican Republic are on the same island. True False

2. The island is in the Ca. . . .

3. What is Santo Domingo ? _____

FULL VERSION A - TEST

1. The West Indies are in Trinidad. True False

2. _____ million people live in the Dominican Republic.

3. Jamaica is more popular with tourists than the Dominican Republic is. True False

4. What do Dominicans grow ? _____ _____

5. Haiti is a democratic country. True False

FULL VERSION B - TEST

1. Which oceans border the islands in the West Indies ?

_____

2. Catholicism is the only religion on the island. True False

3. 1979 was not a good year for Dominicans. True False

4. Which country is the Dominican Republic dependent on ? _____

5. What is special about the democracy in the Dominican Republic ?

_____

MISSING WORDS

SIMPLIFIED VERSION A

Haiti, The, is / principal, industry, of / system.

SIMPLIFIED VERSION B

Republic, the, of big / is, Agriculture, economy / political.

FULL VERSION A

Indies, the, Cuba, islands / Republic, is, Dominican, one, on / has, the, and, of / are, is, from / the, is, tourists, is, more / agriculture, also, more / Unlike, years, be, years / David.

FULL VERSION B

country, map, south, many / The, The, and, there, ocean / The, living, Domingo, markets / Spanish, the, priests / Dominican, islands, are, but, should / is, coffee, are, on, economically / the, four, in / was, in.

TESTS

SIMPLIFIED VERSION A

1. False.
2. Spanish.
3. False.

SIMPLIFIED VERSION B

1. True.
2. Caribbean.
3. The capital of the Dominican Republic.

FULL VERSION A - TEST

1. False.
2. Five.
3. True.
4. Sugar cane, coffee, cocoa, rice and coconut.
5. True.

FULL VERSION B - TEST

Refer to the text to verify your answers.

ACTIVITY 4: "O.K. UNDERSTOOD !"

This ESP course aims at answering specific needs of a specific population. In the area of verbal comprehension skills are sometimes slow to develop. This may be due to the types of neurological processes which determine the eventual comprehension of a verbal message. There are many variables which may influence the expression and reception of an utterance. When the difficulties originating in the different accents, rates of delivery, and registers qualifying (L2) speech are added to other problems of a more psychological nature which also affect communication - shyness, nervousness, time, and so on - it is easy to see the important constraints imposed on the process of verbal comprehension.

In order to prepare the learners to understand different types of verbal exchanges or messages they may be exposed to, each unit of the course will incorporate various exercises recorded on tape which will provide opportunities for learners to develop comprehension skills.

Contrary to "The Dominican Republic" which could be said to focus on general comprehension, the material found in the section "O.K. Understood." would consist exclusively of "problem-solving" or "information-gap" activities.

In these activities, students are required to show, by various means, that they have understood a message by accomplishing certain tasks. In the sample shown in Activity 4, the students must indicate the route to follow to get to the 71st Street beach, on the basis of the information given by a pedestrian at the corner of a street.

A variety of problem-solving activities will be included in the student's material for home-study. These will often illustrate, in additional interactional settings, the communicative functions covered in the units. We also see this type of activity as being adequate for the exploitation of lexical areas (topics) important for the learners but which cannot receive sufficient attention in class due to a lack of time. Numbers, dates, time, currency and car repair are examples of topics which can be developed in the student's work using illustrations, photographs and recorded verbal interaction.

O.K. UNDERSTOOD ! - Problem # X

On tape: "Problem # X. Regardez la carte de Miami à la page x. En vous basant sur l'information donnée par le passant au coin de Biscayne Blvd. et de la 72nd Street, tracez sur la carte la route à suivre".

(Street noise in the background...)

Pedestrian: "The beach ? Sure. Just make a right at the corner of 79th Street. You will cross the J.F. Kennedy causeway. When you're on the other side, just go straight ahead. The 71st Street Beach is right there in front of you. 'Corner of Ocean Drive and 71st".

Driver: "Thanks a lot".

Pedestrian: "Have a good day !"

AUTHENTIC MAP OF MIAMI

CONCLUSION

The object of this thesis was to design a course in English as a second language for a population of French-Canadian adults who regularly spend time in Florida. The major concern throughout the different stages of the development of the project was to try to answer what we considered to be the needs and expectations of this population of learners.

The needs and expectations were derived from the consideration of the social phenomenon constituted by the annual "migration" of this population, by a description of the population itself, and by the identification of their possible language needs. A global but specific picture of the circumstances surrounding the design of the course was thus obtained.

Our attention then shifted to the theory of course design. In order to base the conception of the course on solid grounds, we reviewed the literature on second/foreign language teaching syllabuses. We first considered the three bases of language teaching and adopted the view of authors who support the design of language courses based on research in linguistics, psychology, and education as well as on common sense and on the teacher/designer's experience.

A descriptive analysis of the structural, situational and semantic syllabuses followed, including criticisms found in syllabus design and second language acquisition literature challenging each of these approaches to syllabus design. This second part of the thesis brought forward the elements required to make up a syllabus as well as possible

alternative ways in which the elements could be organized.

Equipped with information on the population and on second/foreign language course design we proceeded to elaborate a set of principles which would guide the design of our course. We expressed once more the necessity for a global approach for the conception of the course, an approach which would take into account the variables or specifics identified as being of importance for effective language development for this population. It is in this sense that we referred to the course as being truly ESP. The 23 principles constitute the part of the thesis in which is reflected our personal alignement of elements to be taken into consideration for the design of the course. As such, they constitute our answer to the need for a course which caters to the specific characteristics, needs and expectations of this population of learners.

The principles reflect current trends in language teaching and second language acquisition research, which stress the importance of presenting language as it is used, for purposes of communication. In Chapter Three, this concern was further specified by principles which illustrate different ways, found in the literature, which contribute to make this principle operational for language teaching and learning. These relate to the use of a semantic description of language, to the grading of items according to their potential value, and to the use of activities which call for a communicative use of language on the part of learners.

We also included other principles which aim at making the course and its interactions correspond more closely to the teaching situation we are

working with. These principles are not found as such in current theory but can be considered as practical applications of concepts receiving much attention in the field of applied linguistics today. Most of these principles reflect the shift of attention from "what's *TAUGHT* to what's *LEARNED*, from *LANGUAGE* - which is universal and impersonal - to *COMMUNICATION* - which is individual and personal, though necessarily situated in a social context", to quote Taggart (1980).

Finally, we tried to incorporate ideas which had a potential of facilitating language development for this particular population. The specific uses of the mother tongue in class and in the materials, the determination to encourage learners to use cognates, as well as other methodological choices are essentially our own. Although similar questions may have been considered in the literature, the development of these ideas in this thesis was strictly based on personal experience and beliefs.

Chapters Four and Five specified the application of the principles stated in Chapter Three by describing certain aspects of the course, by presenting the types of activities which would be at the base of classroom interaction and home study, and by specifying the general language content of the course. The four activities described in Chapter Five illustrate the possible format and "colour" of the course materials which would be designed for the course.

To conclude, it is not in the language it teaches that this course could be said to differ from other courses. In our opinion, it is rather in the constant concern we tried to preserve with providing learners with what they need, in all areas of method, that this course takes on its own character.

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